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Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within higher education.

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This thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University of Sunderland for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

October 2024

Declaration

This thesis is entirely my own work and has not been offered previously for any other degree or diploma.

The following publications are work in progress and have arisen directly or indirectly from the work that led to this PhD:

Students' outcome, normative and control beliefs about participating in volunteering opportunities in higher education: A qualitative study based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

Abstract

Engagement in extracurricular activities such as volunteering when studying in higher education, provides opportunity beyond the classroom to develop skills linked to professional career goals (Khasanzyanova, 2017). However, not all students take this opportunity. A mixed methods approach was used to understand why and inform strategies to motivate participation in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. In Study One, qualitative interviews were carried out to identify beliefs that underpin motivational constructs described in the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB, Ajzen, 1991). That is a person's attitude, perception of control and social influence. The most salient beliefs to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities were to gain knowledge, skills and enhance career progression. The beliefs elicited in Study One, were used in Study Two to examine the predictive validity of the TPB augmented with the construct personal norm. Personal norm contributed to the predictive power of the TPB target behaviour indicating that students felt a personal obligation to engage. Attitude was second strongest predictor in the extended model. The final study examined the effectiveness of an intervention to strengthen student attitudes based upon the beliefs identified in Study One. Attitude was not significantly influenced by the intervention as hypothesised. In conclusion, the TPB demonstrated utility in predicting students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities augmented with personal norm. However, further research is necessary to examine how best to utilise this finding in the development of motivational interventions. These results have theoretical implications for research into volunteering intention and practical implications for the promotion of employability enhancing volunteer opportunities amongst students.

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Glossary of Terms

Term	Definition
Affective beliefs	The emotional element that drives intention to carry out a behaviour.
Altruism	Selfless concern for the well-being of others.
ANCOVA	The analysis of covariance, a statistical method that analyses the difference between three or more group means while controlling the effects of at least one continuous covariate.
Attitude	An individual's positive or negative evaluation of the target behaviour.
Behavioural intention	An individual's relative strength of intention to perform a behaviour.
Behavioural beliefs	An individual's attitude is guided by beliefs of the consequences of performing a behaviour.
Construct	Theory contains various conceptual elements.
Control beliefs	The individual's perception of ease or difficulty in performing a behaviour.
Content Analysis	Determine the presence of certain words, themes or concepts within qualitative data.
Convenience sample	Non-probability sampling method, data collection if from easily accessible and available groups of people.
Descriptive norms	An individual's perceptions of what behaviours are typically performed by significant others.
Engagement	The behaviour of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.
Expectancy-value model	Evaluative reactions based upon perceptions of an outcome from a specific behaviour and the value placed upon those outcomes.
Direct measures/predictors	Attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control are referred to as direct predictors. Variables that directly influence an individual's intention to perform a specific behaviour.

Indirect measure/predictor	Behavioural, normative and control beliefs are referred to as indirect predictors. Variables that do not directly influence intention but instead work through the direct predictors.
Inter-rater reliability	Measurement of level of agreement between multiple raters.
Injunctive norms	An individual's perceptions of what they believe significant others expect them to do.
Instrumental beliefs	The cognitive considerations in executing a target behaviour.
Moral norms	Internalised perceptions of an individual's beliefs between self-affirming or negation to a specific act.
Multivariate regression analysis	Measures the degree at which more than one independent variable (predictor) and more than one dependent variable (responses), are linearly related.
Normative beliefs	Individual's beliefs about the extent important others think they should or should not perform a specific behaviour.
Non volitional	Not a matter of free choice.
Outcome beliefs	Believed consequences of behaviour.
Personal Norm	An individual's moral obligation and feelings of self-approval or disapproval of carrying out a specific act or behaviour.
Perceived behavioural control	A measure of the extent to which an individual believes that the behaviour is under their control.
Salient beliefs	A belief that is readily accessible in an individual's memory.
Self-efficacy	An individual's belief in their own capacity to achieve.
Student engagement	The behaviour of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.
Subjective norm	Perceived social pressure and intention to carry out a specific behaviour and whether significant others approve or disapprove of the behaviour.
Thematic analysis	Analysis of qualitative data.

Variance	A measure of how much values in a data set differ from the mean.
Volunteering	Activities that are unpaid and scheduled outside and in addition to a timetabled program of study. Not activities that are a mandatory requirement for a program of study such as placements.
Volitional	Component of consciousness and choice, having the ability to decide upon and initiate a course of action.

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Student engagement

The following section outlines why student engagement is an issue of concern and the difficulties in defining what constitutes as an act of engagement.

Student engagement has become a global interest and is considered an important issue within higher education. Student engagement is a measure for university performance and universities themselves use it for a competitive edge. However, it can be argued that the term student engagement is a popular term with multiple meanings in literature and because of this the concept has become vague (Vuori, 2014). For the purpose of this thesis, the act of engagement specifically refers to the behaviour of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities and, the term volunteering is used to refer to activities that are unpaid and scheduled outside and in addition to a timetabled program of study. Not activities that are a mandatory requirement for a programme of study such as placements.

There are few studies that attempt to identify or measure this behaviour and reveal the motives for students' decisions to engage or not. Taylor, Hartman and Baldwin (2015) refer to student engagement as the participation in educationally focused activities that lead to numerous outcomes and pleasure with educational experience. The amount to which a student will engage can influence skill development and characteristics required that enable success beyond graduation (Eden, 2014). This can enhance

employability, which is a key goal for both students and higher education institutes. Research however indicates that graduates do not have the skills needed for employer's expectations (Tymon, 2013; Dong-Il, 2015 and Stewart, Wall and Marciniac, 2016). Dong-Il (2015) highlights that almost 30% of students will place academic concerns as the most important issue within campus life. This questions whether graduates are prioritising academic skills to the point of neglecting the development of vital employability skills. Further research is needed which defines graduate employability and explores what works best for different students. Universities still need to identify which employability skills are of priority for undergraduates and find methods to embed, grow and evaluate these skills in higher education (Jackson, 2013).

Stewart, Wall and Marciniac (2016) reiterate that often graduates display high self confidence in their own belief of their ability however, this is in contrast to actual reality. Skills such as communication and problem solving are often attributes that graduates express as having high levels of. However, it is these skills that are reported by employers as lacking (Stewart, Wall and Marciniac, 2016). Khasanzyanova (2017) emphasises the importance of learning in all situations especially the experiences that take place beyond the classroom. Khasanzyanova (2017) reinforces the benefits of learning beyond the educational institute in addition to class-based learning as a key competence which supports personal fulfilment, social inclusion, and active citizenship. Yet the insight into what is understood as a competency and method of expression appears controversial and the gap between graduate and employer perspectives remains.

It is questionable whether graduates fully comprehend the skills employers seek and what method is being used by graduates for self-evaluation. It is an area for debate as to whether institutes are allowing opportunity to learn and develop the skills specifically requested by employers. It is also questionable if employers are appropriately recruiting for these desired skills or if employer's expectations are unrealistic. If employer expectations are not clear, then graduates are unable to demonstrate these skills appropriately. Stewart, Wall and Marciniec (2016) state that these skills are not possible to develop in the classroom or by academic studies but only by executing them personally. This reinforces the importance of students' experiencing an environment to allow growth for additional skills beyond the classroom setting.

Eden (2014) discusses integrated learning as a solution to achieving graduate employability and suggests that students must have experience of employment to become employable. By placing students in an unfamiliar environment will prompt learning such as work experience and industry specific volunteering. One way for students to achieve learning beyond the classroom is through taking part in volunteer work that is aligned to career aspirations with the purpose of developing key skills to support future employability. It is not clear from literature how to engage students within this process or what motivates them to become involved with learning in the environment. Research concerning volunteering predominantly focuses upon volunteering sustainability with less attention to what initially motivates an individual to engage. More research is needed with a focus within a specific higher education sector amongst adult students' (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013; Yang, 2017).

Therefore, this thesis will utilise convenience samples throughout the consecutive studies of higher education student populations. The student populations included within the studies will all be studying programmes whereby volunteering activities should be valued or considered an important aspect to successful graduate prospects. This thesis examines factors that influence motivation to engage specifically in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

With recognition of the importance to learning beyond the classroom and gaining transferrable skills to enhance employability. It is important to understand how to motivate students to engage in activities for self-improvement and not because of a compulsory requirement of their academia. White et al (2015) discusses the importance of personal norms within a defined behaviour and how this refers to an individual's self-approval or disapproval in the act of engaging or not in a specific behaviour. Personal norms could be a useful aid in understanding how to motivate higher education degree students to engage in volunteering opportunities that may benefit future employment.

Sport and public service pathways have an expectation to gain experience alongside academic studies. This further reinforces the potential usefulness of personal norm, and the consideration of students own self approval or disapproval in engagement. Programmes such as sports coaching and exercise health and fitness often require students to observe and shadow industry practitioners. Careers such as teaching, coaching, health professionals and policing are associated with the benefits of volunteering in starting a career. Volunteering can provide valuable experience, skills, and a better understanding of the future job role. Additionally, volunteering may

provide networking opportunities and connections within the respective industry. While volunteering alone may not guarantee a future job, it can certainly enhance students' chances of success in their future career pursuits. By targeting similar undergraduate programmes and student populations across the consecutive studies within this thesis a greater understanding of how to achieve student engagement can be achieved.

It is important to ensure that understanding is supported by a theoretical framework that enables the development of strategies and intervention. The application of a theoretical framework will assist in the comprehension of why an intervention may work. By grounding an intervention in theory, more accurate predictions can be established about potential outcomes. What is more, the design of interventions can have greater effect and impact, allowing for further comparisons across wider findings. This can also allow the contribution of new knowledge or refinement to existing theories and aid the advancement of knowledge informing future research practice.

In this thesis, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB, Ajzen 1991), is the theoretical framework used that will allow for a greater understanding and development of effective behaviour change strategies aimed at motivating engagement in this behaviour. The TPB is a social cognitive theory that attempts to predict and understand behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The TPB describes three psychological factors that are necessary to predict an individual's intention to engage in the behaviour of interest. These are called attitude, which is comprised of outcome beliefs, subjective norm which is the subjective experience of social norms and perceived behavioural control which is comprised of beliefs related to the amount of control a person has over the action. The TPB has been used to understand volunteering in a number of

different contexts, but research predominantly focuses on volunteering sustainability and not the factors that drive initial engagement and involvement. Also, limited literature includes samples from institutions that may include further education colleges that also deliver higher education programmes.

1.2 Research questions and aims

This research targets student engagement in one specific behaviour of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities and focuses upon the beliefs which underpin motivation to potentially carry out this act. Throughout these studies student engagement is explored in relation to employability with the application of a theoretical framework from the TPB. This is achieved by addressing the following research questions aims and objectives.

Objectives

1. Identify the beliefs that underpin undergraduate students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.
2. Examine the validity of the TPB in predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. This will be carried out using the beliefs generated in Study One alongside direct measures suggested by Ajzen (1991). The TPB model will be extended by the inclusion of the additional variable personal norm in order to assess any additional variability explained.
3. Examine the effectiveness of an intervention study with the use of motivational videos to modify beliefs towards employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. This will be carried out using the beliefs generated in Study One as direct measures suggested by Ajzen (1991). The TPB model will include the additional variable personal norm as a direct measure to assess any additional variability explained.

1.3 Contribution to the knowledge of student engagement

By answering these questions, the contribution to research is an understanding of student intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within undergraduate degree programmes and possible methods to encourage this targeted behaviour.

Student engagement is an underdeveloped area, present research has been primarily focused on its relationship with academic achievement and whether or not students will remain to complete their chosen course of study. At the point of commencing this thesis the TPB has not previously been applied to student engagement and past literature has not been conducted on a course specific area with little emphasis concerned with higher education and adult provision especially partnership colleges delivering Foundation Degrees.

The TPB is a widely endorsed theory used to understand human behaviour and psychology across a range of disciplines (Fenitra et al, 2021). A further strength to the TPB is its flexibility to extend the original constructs and add to the model's predictor capabilities of a target behaviour. The application of TPB as a theoretical underpinning to this thesis allows for greater understanding and predictability of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

The TPB has not been applied to student engagement in volunteering within an educational setting for the purpose of learning beyond the classroom environment and gaining transferable skills to aid graduate employability. Additionally, the TPB has not

been applied within this setting with the extended construct of personal norm. Literature utilising the TPB linked to volunteering has been predominantly applied to the general population and not specific to higher education sport students. Additionally, literature has been focused on volunteering sustainability and not the initial motives to engage in the behaviour making this area of research original. The TPB has utility in enabling us to identify the beliefs that we need to target in interventions that aim to change motivational intention.

The application of TPB not only allows for research into a new area but this research also makes contribution to more academic concerns about the sufficiency of the theory whilst adding to the theoretical debate of its utility.

In order to achieve the thesis aims and objectives, the following structural plan will be presented.

1.4 How the thesis will be presented.

The following thesis is comprised of seven chapters.

Chapter Two is a critical review of current literature that examines student volunteering and considers the key employability skills and development, motives and barriers. The application of theoretical approaches utilised and the key constructs relevant to the target behaviour have been critically reviewed.

Chapter Three outlines the theoretical justification for the application and utilisation of the TPB in the context of employability enhancing volunteering behaviour in higher education degree students. Further justifications are outlined for the methodological and theoretical changes to the original TPB that is presented in this thesis.

Chapter Four describes a belief elicitation study. Study One was conducted using qualitative methods collecting data from a convenience sample of higher education students studying a Foundation Degree Exercise Health and Fitness and HND Sports Coaching and Development at a Further Education College and first year students studying a Sport or Exercise degree at one University. A semi qualitative approach was used. Semi structured questions were used in an interview to identify outcome, normative and control beliefs. Content analysis was employed to identify the most frequent cited responses.

Chapter Five describes an examination the validity of the TPB and additional variable personal norm in predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing

volunteering opportunities. A survey was developed which included items that directly measured attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control alongside belief-based measurement of the three constructs using the beliefs elicited in Study One. In addition, a measure of personal norm was included. Strength and evaluation of these beliefs were measured in order to determine the relative strength of each of the TPB predictor variables and the additional variable personal norm on intention using multiple regression analysis. The study was conducted with a larger sample consisting of higher education sport, policing, Exercise health and fitness students from across three colleges and one University.

Chapter Six assesses the effectiveness of an intervention to improve student attitudes towards volunteering opportunities. The intervention was developed based on the beliefs elicited in Study One that were shown to be strongly associated with intention in Study Two. A pre-post experimental design was conducted to test the hypothesis that exposure to a motivational video targeting outcome beliefs would lead to positive attitude change. A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to analyse data. The study was conducted with undergraduate degree students studying sport and exercise programmes at one university.

Chapter Seven summarises the findings of the three empirical studies reported in chapters four, five and six with analysis and discussion for students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. This chapter will include an outline of methodological strengths, limitations, and recommendations and conclude with considerations for future research and implications within the context of education.

1.5 Mixed methods approach

The thesis consists of a series of studies each proceeding and building upon consecutive findings using a mixed methods approach. Research supports the practice of combining quantitative and qualitative methods (Yardley and Bishop, 2015; Bishop, 2015). It is an increasingly acknowledged and valued approach that enables numerous aims and gains collaborative findings. Mixed method approaches allow researchers to produce more complete data and use results from one method to gain greater insights with the opposite method (Yardley and Bishop, 2015). The focus can be placed towards either quantitative or qualitative or have a balanced weighting to develop hypotheses or create questionnaires for a follow up quantitative study (Bishop, 2015). Mixed methods approach holds further value in that both qualitative and quantitative can be combined in practice to reveal a full account of findings by involving the greatest strengths of each approach and paradigm. A mixed methods approach applied throughout a larger study such as a thesis supports the goal of multiple aims, by collecting greater degrees of data for a full account, cross comparing and verifying findings and allowing for the use of one set of results to inform the next stages and methodological processes to advance. The findings of one study can allow for deeper insight with the opposing or complimentary findings of a different paradigm that has been employed. Studies that adopt a single quantitative approach may find the research question has not been fully addressed, yet the inclusion of a qualitative element attempts to provide a complete account. The inclusion of a qualitative strand enables rich detailed perspectives of participants to be captured and interpreted allowing a comprehensive understanding of the researched area in question. Qualitative methods are advantageous when attempting to understand complicated

social process and gain in depth perspectives of the studied participants. However qualitative research is not without its limitations with regards to social desirability which is the tendency of an individual to present themselves in a manner that is deemed to be socially acceptable but questionable to actual reality (Bergen and Labonte, 2020). This can further provide thought for consideration to minimise the social desirability effects and avoid participants providing responses they believe the researcher may wish to hear. Social desirability bias in qualitative research is a factor and troublesome, through careful methodological approaches it can be minimised.

Although a mixed methods approach holds many benefits in application, it is important to ensure the reliability of each component of the mixed methods research. Consideration is needed with regards to the epistemological differences that both qualitative and quantitative paradigms hold and the decisions that take place when designing, executing, and analysing the study findings.

By integrating both quantitative and qualitative methods, a realist approach, valuing objective precise judgements as a measurement to predict and control variables in a quantifiable manner to infer intentions to engage in volunteering behaviour has been applied. Alongside and in conjunction with qualitative methods of an interpretivist nature and constructivist perspective to appreciate the rich detailed perspectives and beliefs of undergraduate degree students and intentions to take part in volunteering behaviour. An existing model, TPB, has been applied throughout the thesis to understand the motives and intentions of undergraduate degree students to engage in industry specific volunteering experiences. The established theory was further extended following collected data on most salient beliefs to inform a confirmatory

approach using deductive reasoning. It is the pragmatic approach of an epistemological middle ground that has applied the advantages and strengths of both approaches using inductive interviews to elicit salient responses and perspective (Yardley and Bishop, 2015). Following precise measurement and an experimental design for hypothesis testing. The adopted philosophical approach of pragmatism allows for distinction between the qualitative approaches and the quantitative approaches but permits corresponding findings to allow for a complete assessment of the research and studies undertaken.

1.6 Measurement of student engagement

The following sections outlines the importance of volunteering and considers the contribution to key employability skills and development, motives, and barriers.

In order to determine whether a student is engaged with a program of study, higher education institutes use statistics such as grades, retention, success rates and attendance as measures. However, this is an objective perspective from the institutes alone and it fails to recognise the student's beliefs on factors that they feel impacts their engagement. Educational establishments place much emphasis on the students' commitment to studies and the perceived effort applied by students is often the predominant measure of being engaged. Overall involvement in academic, social, and extracurricular activities provided by Universities and Colleges both inside and outside of classroom teaching hours is often used as a judgement of students' engagement (Quaye and Harper, 2014). Yet often the student measures engagement from factors such as socialisation, identity, needs fulfilment and end goals. It is now common practice to hear and record the student voice through various methods such as surveys and focus groups and a culture of 'you said we did' approach is often the outcome. Often institutions objectify engagement as a measure of scores from a National Student survey (Taylor, Hartman and Baldwin, 2015), which becomes the benchmark for quality rather than an analysis of understanding why or how to better engage or improve the student experience. Yet in order to actually impact student engagement the feedback must be placed in context and evaluated with the purpose of enhancing student experience. It is of benefit to educational establishments and the students themselves to gain insight into which factors affect engagement and to identify the most important variables for measurement of engagement. The definition

of what constitutes being engaged requires clarity and identification of areas that can be influenced by institutions and those that are independent to the student require research.

Student engagement and importance across sectors.

The UK higher education sector acknowledges the importance of student engagement through the introduction by the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) of the UK Quality Code for Higher Education on Student Engagement (2012). The code was used as a tool to measure institutes during times of inspections to judge whether students are being supported to increase overall motivation and engage in learning, study independently and actively participate in quality enhancement and quality assurance processes which would significantly raise a positive improvement of student experience (Nygaard et al, 2013). In 2018 the code was revised and Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE's), saw their responsibilities as a member of the UK Standing Committee for Quality Assessment (UKSCQA) transfer to the Office for Students (OfS), (UKSCQA, 2018).

The OfS promote the involvement of work experience in the form of internships, work experience and volunteering to learn about specific working environments in addition to gaining experience and developing social skills. The OfS aims to ensure the quality of teaching and learning is regulated to allow equality of opportunity and overall excellence for student outcomes (OfS, 2022). The Teaching and Excellence Framework launched in 2022 and operated by the OfS, aims to incentivise higher education providers to reach above minimum expectations and requirements for all

groups of students, including underrepresented groups (OfS, 2022). Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014) reinforce the importance of government involvement and attention to students' engagement within volunteering experiences and argues that it is the students of today who will be seen as the future leaders.

With increased focus from the Government on institutional health and wellbeing and the acknowledged benefits of an engaged campus (Williamson et al, 2018). There has been incentive to create environments that promote health and wellbeing within institutional cultures which allows students to succeed to their full potential. Educational establishments have the capability to achieve a healthy community for their students and provide life changing experiences to positively influence the key skills they develop and in turn contribute to a wider society. Volunteering is just one way to gain these experiences and promote a healthy institute. By providing volunteering experiences linked to work placements and employability skills then universities are also responding to the needs of students and businesses in addition to positively impacting the health and wellbeing of their students and the wider community. Williamson et al (2018) highlight that 78% of British University students will engage in volunteering to generally improve or help people, with 66% stating motives to volunteer are driven by the aim to develop skills for employment. Yet research focusing upon students and the intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities is still an under researched area with greater focus placed on strategies to maintain and continue volunteering. More research is needed to encourage the initial behaviour of engaging in the act of volunteering.

Higher education institutes often focus upon retention as a measure of engagement. However, many factors seem to contribute to a student's decision to remain with an academic program and therefore 'engage'. This questions the accuracy of using these objective stats as a tool to examine engagement and reinforces the need to have a more holistic approach and overview when analysing student engagement. Mazerolle and Dodge (2014) suggest that persistence to graduate is inevitable once a student has applied themselves to integrating socially and academically to their institution. Performance, interest in academics and support from peers was believed to heavily influence integration. Greater consideration should be given to insights gained from the student perspective concerning factors that support engagement and not simply the higher education organisations objective measures of statistics.

Compulsory or voluntary

Engaging youths in the act of volunteering has been an agenda for the EU's 2020 strategy (Khasanzyanova, 2017). The aim is to increase active participation in society for positive experiences that positively impact employability and enable crucial skills to be developed. Many education programmes in the UK include volunteering and work placement modules as a mandatory element within their studies such as teacher training qualifications, School-centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT), Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) and Post Compulsory Education and Training (PCET) are just a few. It is undeniable that some students' grasp this as an opportunity to network, gain industry specific knowledge and skills whereas others will seek to achieve the minimum in terms of committed engagement and taking part.

Students acknowledge the advantages of engaging within volunteering and work placements however, not all students are willing to take part in the opportunities presented to them by their institutions. There is limited research to identify how students' can be motivated to engage in the behaviour of volunteering at a greater more meaningful level to themselves, whether this be a requirement of their qualification or from the gratitude of independently seeking this in addition to the programme needs of the qualification. Lin (2017) states that it is higher deliberative beliefs that contribute to higher engagement attitudes in volunteering. Further emphasis is placed on the student's liberty and free will with suggestions that institutes should accommodate the moral convictions of students as this form of citizenship leads to volunteering behaviour. Lin (2017) further suggests that education needs to include a more deliberative pedagogy to raise the act of volunteering there is no further suggestion how this can be achieved or incorporated into the curriculum. The promotion of volunteering through the moral correctness of good citizenship may not be as effective when the drivers to take part from the perspective of students is for self-improvement and skill development in the pursuit of employability.

The definition of volunteering needs clarity, some countries have blurred the lines over whether volunteering must be voluntary. In the UK student volunteering is encouraged but it is questionable if these opportunities are required or obligatory to successfully achieve programme credits. Sapir (2022) presents opposing views concerning volunteering, one which questions compulsory education volunteering as part of a programme of study, stating this is not volunteering. Alternatively, the view that where volunteering is mandatory, students should still hold moral obligations to take part from a civic duty responsibility. In particular Sapir (2022) discusses that if students receive

financial aid in the form of scholarships, then they should be obligated to take part in volunteer activities. The type of volunteering is not discussed within the study; however, this does pose issues of socioeconomic vulnerability and denies students the free choice associated with free will of engaging in the act of volunteering. This further opens deeper discussions concerning the topic of power and equity amongst students' from differing socioeconomic backgrounds and the institutes. This further raises questions in terms of what constitutes as volunteering, if students must complete a minimum required number of hours to pass a module, then is this still an act of volunteering from the student or should this now be considered a compulsory placement? The findings by Yang (2017) conclude that compulsory volunteering of high school students did not increase the likelihood of participating in further volunteering when transitioning to university. Ultimately the motives behind high school students volunteering were altruistic drives and a lack of evidence was determined to state that compulsory volunteering improved long term volunteering participation.

These findings are interesting and raise questions given the Governments current commitment to improve the quality of technical education in England and create a world-class skills system (Straw et al, 2019). September 2020 aimed to see a broader roll out of T Level programmes across England. This was a major part of the Government's reforms to strengthen England's skills system by improving vocational and technical education and thereby meet employers' requirements. The launching of T Levels aimed to provide students with education and training opportunities that allowed them to successfully transition to apprenticeships, employment, or higher education. The introduction of T Levels commenced with two-year technical

programmes for 16–19-year-olds. Combining classroom theory, practical learning, and a minimum of a 45 day 315-hour placement with an employer providing a real workplace experience (Straw et al, 2019). T Levels aim to meet the needs of industry and prepare students' for work allowing for knowledge and experience to be gained and commencing the pathway to highly skilled employment, apprenticeship, or higher-level study. It is uncertain how successful the long-term effects of T levels will have on the economic agenda and given the findings of Yang (2017); it is questionable how mandatory placement hours will impact those who continue into higher education. It is also a subject of debate in terms of how many employers will engage in T level delivery and if the number of employers supporting the delivery will be enough to meet need and demand for student placements.

1.7 Summary of Chapter one

Research does indicate that when students are actively involved within university experiences then this positively impacts a range of skill developments for students and aids succession to graduation and employment (Eden, 2014; Quaye and Harper, 2014; Williamson et al, 2018). However, research has revealed that students' perceptions of their own skills is miss matched from employer's assessments of the actual skills graduates have acquired (Tymon, 2013; Dong-II, Stewart, Wall and Marciniac, 2016). To bridge the gap and ensure graduates meet employer expectations, additional learning is needed in the form of experiences beyond the classroom and within the working environment. If students were able to engage in volunteering opportunities aligned to their future career aspirations, then this would aid the development of these skills in addition to the learning that takes place within a programme of study. The benefits of volunteering are well documented to assist in skill development and employability (Nygaard et al, 2013; Quaye and Harper, 2014; Williamson et al, 2018), and students acknowledge the many advantages. However, not all students are proactively engaging in the process, with some students' executing the minimum expectations in terms of academia and engagement, while other students are committing to the opportunities presented to them and taking full advantage. An understanding of what influences students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities could assist in the promotion of the target behaviour and support students in achieving prospective career goals.

Personal norm is referred to as an individual's moral obligation to carry out a specific act and the feelings of self-approval or disapproval in doing so (Sia and Jose, 2019).

Given the acknowledgement that students display with the act of volunteering in terms of the many benefits, personal norms could be a useful construct in understanding how to engage in the behaviour. A mixed methods approach utilising an existing model such as the TPB, will allow greater understanding of students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

The term student engagement has been shown to have multiple meanings across literature and its application can lead to ambiguity in interpretation. It is important to define student engagement and break this down into specific behaviours. In this thesis the specific behaviour reflecting engagement is defined as students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. For the purpose of this thesis volunteering is defined as activities that are unpaid and scheduled outside and in addition to a timetabled programme of study. Not activities that are a mandatory requirement for a program of study such as placements.

Chapter Two: Literature critique and review

Chapter two examines current literature to gain a greater understanding of the factors contributing to student volunteering including theoretical approaches utilised, and the contribution to employability skills, personal development, motives, and barriers. The theoretical approaches utilised, and the key constructs considered to be relevant in the context of taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

The following critical review of literature follows PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses) guidelines as recommended by Harris et al (2013). A critical review of literature was chosen to allow for a precise and transparent methodology that enables a rigorous methodological quality of the reviewed studies (Scott, Glasziou and Clark, 2023). By conducting the critical review, a comprehensive synthesis of the existing literature allows for a deeper understanding of student volunteering that is analytical, critical, and progressive. The following critical review contributes to the development of evidence-based practice by critically appraising and synthesising the most appropriate available evidence and enabling quality assessment checks to minimise study bias. This critical review informs and supports the thesis research question by demonstrating a thorough understanding of the existing literature and highlighting gaps in current knowledge.

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this thesis was to understand the factors that influence motivation to take part in volunteering opportunities that are offered by higher education institutions

as opportunities for employability enhancement and establish potential targets for strategies aimed at enhancing motivation. In this thesis volunteering is defined as activities that are unpaid and scheduled outside and in addition to a timetabled programme of study. For this reason, activities that are a mandatory requirement for a program of study such as placements are not included in the analysis. Literature was obtained from database search platforms in addition to manual searches. The databases searched were SPORTDiscus, Discover, Psychology and Behavioral Sciences, British Education Index, Education Research Complete, ERIC and Hospitality and Tourism complete. Manual searches were conducted using the references listed in journal articles found as part of the computer search. The keywords and terms included synonyms of descriptions of volunteers (e.g. student, assistant, charity worker), students (e.g. learners, teenagers, adolescents, and adult), motivation and attitude (e.g. positive and negative), social influence (e.g. friends, family, teacher, and employer) and self-efficacy (e.g. barriers and facilitators). The work undertaken has potential to inform educators, external partners and stakeholders of factors that influence students' motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The wider implication is that the findings of this critical review will potentially support higher education institutes to develop educational curriculums aligned with employer's expectations of future graduates. The beliefs that motivate students to initially take part in volunteering activities can be targeted and incorporated into future programmes to support bespoke student needs such as employability skills and improve overall student experience.

The aim of this review therefore is to critically examine existing literature to gain greater understanding of the factors shown to influence student motivation in the context of

engagement in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within higher education.

Review questions

1. What are the motives, beliefs and barriers of undergraduate students to engage in extracurricular activities such as volunteering?
2. What theoretical approaches and key constructs have been used to examine the behaviour of volunteering.

2.2 Methodology

2.2.1 Literature review search

A comprehensive SPORTDiscus, Discover, Psychology and Behavioral Sciences, British Education Index, Education Research Complete, Education Resource Information centre (ERIC) and Hospitality and Tourism complete search was carried out that was limited to the English language. In addition, manual searches were conducted from reference lists of identified studies and searched for non-database published studies. Search terms were used in database searches with 18 search terms being used to identify students who volunteer such as: students, youth and young adult. In total, 25 search terms were used to identify those who volunteer with associations with enhancing employability prospects (Appendices 1).

2.2.2 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The inclusion and exclusion criteria followed the guidelines of PICOS (Participant(s), comparison(s), outcome(s), and study design). The reference and guidance of PICOS criteria permits a meticulous approach to reviews which enables a review to be systematic (Harris et al, 2013). All search results were screened for inclusion and exclusion criteria, details are noted in Table 1.1. The search only considered articles from 2013 onwards to ensure the most recent findings from primary sources were included. Literature searches were conducted between December 2023 until February 2024. Articles were initially screened by reading the abstract and title to identify if the studies met the inclusion criteria. Full texts were reviewed where articles satisfied the abstract screening or where it was unclear from the abstract if intentions or motives had been reported.

Table 1.1 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

	Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Study type	Available in English Language	Not available in English Language
Participants	Studies involving university or college students aged 18 and above.	Studies not involving university or college students aged 18 and above.
Outcomes	Studies reporting factors affecting motives and/or barriers to volunteering participation.	Studies with no evidence on motives and/or barriers to volunteering participation.
Volunteering	Unpaid, extracurricular activities within the context of higher education.	Paid activities, outside of the context of higher education.
Study Type	Reporting original findings. Full text Cross sectional (Quantitative studies) Quantitative studies Qualitative studies Mixed methods studies Studies that are accessible	Non-original findings, for example, reviews, editorials. Systematic reviews Full text unavailable Duplicated studies Prospective and retrospective studies. Longitudinal Studies that are not accessible
Publication Type	Journal articles. Peer reviewed and not peer reviewed articles.	Not a journal article.
Publication Year	Published from 2013 to present.	Published prior to 2013
Language	English	All other languages
Location	UK and international studies	

2.2.3 Data extraction

The data extracted from studies that satisfied the inclusion and exclusion criteria were entered into evidence tables (Tables 1.2 and 1.3). The following information was extracted from each study: authors' names, year of publication, participant demographics, research methods and analysis, theories and constructs, results and limitations (Table 1.2). Primary motives, intentions and barriers were included in additional evidence table (Table 1.3). The following information was extracted for each study where applicable: Study objective, intentions and motives, actual participation or intentional participation, barriers and what increases intention to volunteer. The data extraction was carried out independently by one reviewer with further checks conducted by one other independent reviewer. Discussions between each reviewer were conducted to ascertain parity on the extracted data.

2.2.4 Synthesis

Due to the range of study methodologies reviewed and the varied outcome measures reported, this review did not explicitly extract numerical data for analysis. The current review of literature implemented a narrative synthesis to compare the study outcomes. The Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT) was used as a guide to critically appraise the quality of the studies reviewed and thereby reduce risk of any bias within the findings (Hong, Gonzalez-Reyes and Pluye, 2018). The wide variety of assessment tools available can be troublesome for reviewers to select the most appropriate method. The MMAT was chosen as it allows for the critical appraisal of quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods studies. Moreover, MMAT was created and designed

to address the challenges of critical appraisal in systematic mixed studies review (Hong, Gonzalez-Reyes and Pluye, 2018). Thereby making this appraisal tool apt and best fitted to answer the research questions for this thesis chapter. The research terms were combined with Boolean operators (AND, OR NOT).

2.3 Results of the search

The database and manual search generated an initial sample of 816 papers. After duplicate papers and papers that did not satisfy the inclusion and exclusion criteria were screened and reviewed, 45 papers were identified as suitable and appropriate and full text screening of those remaining papers were conducted. Of these, 7 papers met the inclusion and exclusion criteria.

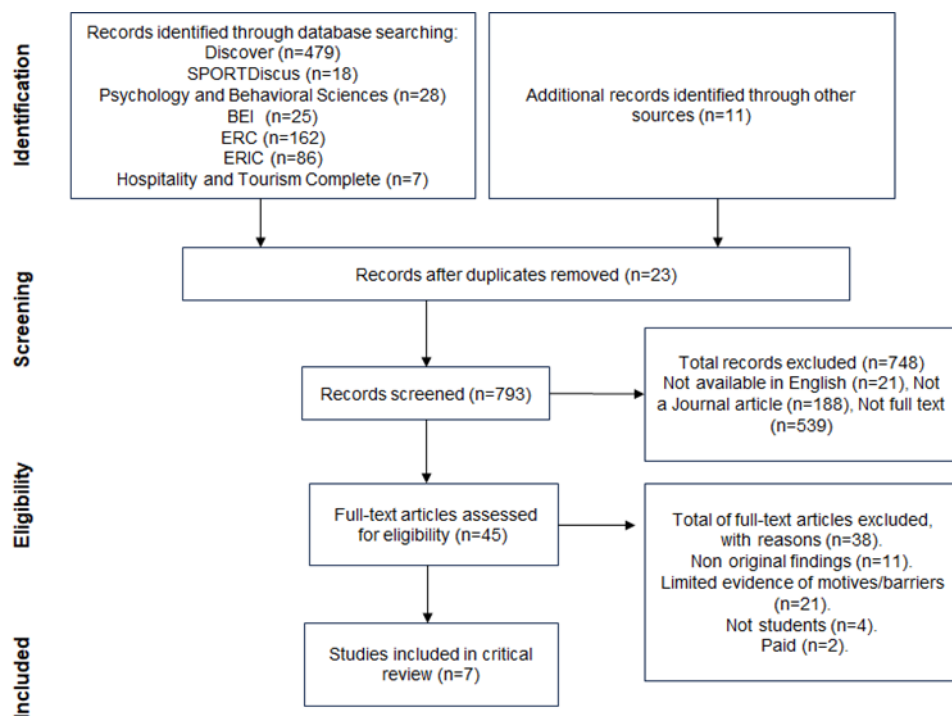


Figure 1.1. Flow chart depicts the step-by-step process of the application of inclusion and exclusion criteria to generate a final number of studies for analysis in the literature review.

2.3.1 Characteristics of the included studies

Of the seven studies identified, three were conducted in the United Kingdom with one of the three studies including European Union citizens [2, 3, 7]. One study was conducted in the Czech Republic [1], one in China [4], one in Australia [5] and one in Malaysia [6]. Five studies used surveys and questionnaires as methods of data collection [1, 2, 4-6], with two studies conducting interviews [3, 6]. Across the seven studies data analysis included variations of correlation studies, t-tests, and thematic analysis. Two studies utilised qualitative research methods [3, 6], three studies conducted quantitative methodological approaches [1, 4, 6] and two studies carried out mixed method approaches [2, 5]. Each of the seven studies highlighted motives and barriers to higher education degree students' participation in volunteering and extracurricular activities. Of the seven studies only two examined participants' intention to take part in volunteering activities [4, 5]. One of these studies included a sample population of both volunteers and non-volunteers [5]. One study focused on sustained volunteering [7], with two studies examining motives of students currently volunteering [3, 6]. One study considered participants who either had past volunteering experiences, were currently volunteering, or considering volunteering [1]. One study did not indicate if the participants were new to volunteering or if they had past experience [2]. Across the seven studies it was not highlighted if beliefs and motives differed between those who had past experiences of volunteering, were currently volunteering, or considering engaging in volunteering as a new behaviour. It must be acknowledged that factors that may be important for the initiation of volunteering and the maintenance of volunteering may vary.

Sample sizes across the seven studies also varied from 40 participants [3], 45 participants [7], 235 participants [5], 282 participants [1], 294 participants [2], 310 participants [6] to 804 participants [4]. Study objectives across the seven studies were varied in the demographics of the participants, however all participants were studying within higher education. All study objectives focused on an understanding of motivations of students who volunteer or the influencing factors. One study compared motives across economic programmes and helping professions programmes [1]. One study focused on the development of a sustained student volunteering model [7]. One study examined the egoistic motives for volunteering [6] and one study explored the link to self-efficacy and extracurricular activity participation [2]. The wider implications of the participant demographics across the seven studies must be considered when interpreting the data for potential cultural bias amongst the participants beliefs and motives to volunteering.

Across the seven studies motives and intentions to take part in volunteering were varied with most prominent themes emerging as social norms and influences, altruistic factors, and self-benefit such as career enhancement or to overcome feelings of loneliness. Further motives indicated religious beliefs or a personal connection to the specific act of volunteering. Identified barriers to students engaging in volunteering were also varied ranging from a lack of time, finance, caring responsibilities, cultural expectations, lack of relatedness to the volunteer sector or cause, lack of awareness, social pressures, transportation, and confidence. Across the seven studies main findings highlighted the following factors as key to increasing intentions and motives to volunteer: career advancement, social and institutional support, altruistic motives, promoting positive attitudes and experiences, and significant others or moral norms.

A theoretical underpinning was prominent across six of the studies [2-7]. Two studies applied the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) [4-5]. Both studies included additional constructs such as the dimension of cognition [4], moral obligation and past behaviour [5]. One study utilised Bandura's Self-Efficacy theory [2], one study applied Self Determination Theory (SDT) [3], one study used both the Functional Theory (1960) and the Theory of Maslow's Hierarchy Needs [6], with one study using a constructivist variant of grounded theory [7].

Table 1.2 Background information for the reviewed studies.

Source	Demographics, Culture, Country, number of participants.	Research methods and analysis	Theories and constructs	Results	Limitations
1. Činčalová and Černá (2021)	Czech Republic. Economic students (Finance management, Travel and Tourism). Students of helping professions (Clinical Social Worker, General Nurse, and Midwifery). n=282	Quantitative Self-reported questionnaire. Chi-square test of independence.	None	The field of study and frequency of volunteering depend on each other. Gender is not a determining factor in volunteer participation. Key motives to volunteering are to feel useful, gain new experience and skills, use their skills, make new friends, fill free time, work in this area, religious beliefs.	Researched between October 2019 and March 2020, before pandemic of COVID-19 when volunteering is a significant part of Czech Republic society. Study considers participants with volunteering experience and those who have not previously engaged in the experience. It does not consider that these beliefs may be different depending on past behaviour. Study conducted among students at the College of Polytechnics Jihlava, which may not represent the broader population of Czech students. Lack of longitudinal data. Study does not consider influences of socio-economic background or personal values. Cultural factors specific to the region may influence students' attitudes and behaviours towards volunteering.
2. Griffiths, Dickinson and Day (2021)	UK Higher Education Institutions (HEI), North of England.	Quantitative (Predominantly), Survey included	Bandura, Self-efficacy.	Positive association between involvement in certain ECAs and self-efficacy.	Unknown if students with higher self-efficacy are more likely to engage in ECA or if engagement with ECAs is a

	n=294	open ended questions. Self-reported questionnaire. Correlation analysis, t-tests.		Supporting students to develop higher levels of self-efficacy specific to the university setting could have an impact on key higher education outcomes such as employability.	contributing factor to higher self-efficacy at university. Closer examination is needed of respondents who were engaged in paid work. Insufficient variation in demographics of participants to draw valid comparisons of key characteristics. Participants volunteering backgrounds or experiences not provided.
3. Hayton (2016)	Sport Universities North East England (SUNEE). n=40	Qualitative Semi structured interviews. Interview transcription and coding.	Self-Determination Theory (SDT).	Student motivations to volunteer change from extrinsic (instrumental reasons such as enhancing employability profile) to intrinsic (enjoying the experience) motivation the longer an individual participates.	Only students currently volunteering in SUNEE were accessed and interviewed, experiences may have contrasted with former volunteers who may have exited the project or dropped out. Focused on existing student volunteer motivations and not factors that initially engage students to volunteer.
4. Hu et al (2023)	Chinese College students. n=804	Quantitative Self-reported questionnaire. Structural equation modelling, Correlation analysis	Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), includes the dimension of cognition.	Students' attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control positively impact behaviour intention, which can predict volunteer behaviour. Cognition significantly and positively impacts attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control. Cognition does not impact student volunteer behaviour.	TPB main theoretical framework, therefore not all relevant factors influencing volunteering intentions and behaviour's may not have been captured. Sample consisted of only Chinese students, this limits generalisability and cultural sensitivity of findings. Only surveyed university students this may not reflect the full range of volunteering intentions and behaviours among Chinese College students.

<p>5. Hyde and Knowles (2013)</p>	<p>Australian University students, studying psychology degree.</p> <p>n=235</p>	<p>Quantitative</p> <p>Self-reported questionnaire.</p> <p>Regression analysis, content analysis and thematic analysis. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis, independent t-tests.</p>	<p>Extended Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), includes moral obligation and past behaviour.</p>	<p>The extended TPB model explains 67% of variance in students volunteering intentions.</p> <p>Control perceptions and perceived moral obligations related to volunteering represent important future targets to encourage student volunteering.</p>	<p>Larger number of females in the study.</p> <p>Participants sample predominantly Caucasian, educated. Psychology students, higher levels of education and chosen future profession may be more predisposed to volunteering.</p> <p>Reliance on self-reported data.</p> <p>Australian only student cohort limits generalisability of findings beyond this population.</p> <p>Sample included volunteers and non-volunteers, factors that may be important for initiations and maintenance of students' volunteering may vary.</p>
<p>6. Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014)</p>	<p>Four public Universities. Malaysian college student volunteers.</p> <p>n=310</p>	<p>Quantitative</p> <p>Self-reported questionnaire. Cross sectional survey. Adaptation of Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI)</p> <p>Descriptive analysis of egoistic motives.</p>	<p>Functional Theory (1960).</p> <p>Theory of Maslow's Hierarchy Needs.</p>	<p>Egoistic motives are important for volunteering participation.</p>	<p>Participants all Malaysian college students, wider college students' populations could be considered.</p> <p>Participants are already part of a volunteer club which limits generalisations of findings.</p> <p>Study only addresses descriptive analysis and is not sufficient to confirm relationships between variables such as egoistic motives and volunteering involvement.</p>
<p>7. Williamson et al (2018)</p>	<p>18 years or over, mean age of 24.0 years (SD – 9.51 years). 38 undergraduate students, 7</p>	<p>Qualitative</p> <p>Single interviews facilitating elicitation of rich</p>	<p>Constructivist variant of grounded theory.</p>	<p>Development of a three-phase model capturing key processes of sustained student volunteering.</p>	<p>Male volunteers were absent from the subgroup of ex-volunteers, which meant that more elements of student volunteering were under explored.</p>

	<p>postgraduate students. Ethnically diverse, all UK or European Union citizens.</p> <p>n=45</p>	<p>and in-depth experiential data.</p> <p>Line by line coding, development of individual theme tables for each participant to produce a series of super-ordinate thematic maps.</p>		<p>The study highlights the development of resilience, making connections, and keeping the balance as essential themes in maintaining sustained volunteering.</p>	<p>Small sample size of British students may limit generalisability.</p> <p>Study consisted of participants from different academic disciplines and institutes, age, gender, ethnicity, and socioeconomic background may not have been fully represented.</p> <p>Self-reported data.</p> <p>Specific to student volunteering in a health context.</p> <p>Lack of longitudinal data.</p>
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Table 1.3 Primary motives, intentions and barriers of volunteers included in the studies

Source	Study objective	Intentions/motives of volunteers	Participation, actual or intentional	Barriers	What increases intention to volunteer (main findings).
1. Činčalová and Černá (2021)	Compare the motivation for volunteering and volunteering experience with students of helping professions and economics.	Feeling useful, gain new experience and skills, use their skills, make new friends, fill free time, work in this area, religious beliefs.	Past volunteering experiences, current and beliefs about considering volunteering if participants have no prior experience.	Lack of time and lack of information.	More free time, work-based experience, feeling useful. Online volunteerism.
2. Griffiths, Dickinson and Day (2021)	Investigate possible relationship between self-efficacy and Extracurricular activity (ECA) participation.	Students are more likely to engage in ECA's if perceived as connected to HEI, such as student representatives.	Not stated.	Caring responsibilities, available time, cultural expectations.	Extracurricular activities that distinguish themselves in a competitive job market. Perceived benefits, interest and passion, peer influence, institutional support, personal development, career advancement, flexibility, and accessibility.
3. Hayton (2016)	Explore and understand motivations of students who volunteer and remain on a sports-based outreach project.	Positive experiences, incentives and support, social relations, altruistic response.	Students currently volunteering.	Lack of relatedness between the student volunteer and the clients they were working with. This lack of connection can present a challenge and act as a barrier to positive motivational development. Poor relationships between the student volunteer and individuals they may be working with.	Fostering positive experiences, providing incentives and support, nurturing social relations, and tapping into altruistic motivations.

4. Hu et al (2023)	Explore behavioural patterns influencing Chinese University students' volunteer participation.	<p>A positive attitude about volunteering increases intention to engage.</p> <p>Students perceived social pressure or expectations from others influences intention to engage.</p> <p>A students' feelings of capability and in control of their power to take part will promote greater participation.</p> <p>Positive attitude, social pressure or expectations of others, perceived control and ease or difficulty in performing the volunteering, the more active intention is to volunteer the more likely it is to engage in the behaviour.</p>	Intention	Time constraints, financial constraints, lack of awareness, transportation issues, confidence and skills, social pressures, burnout, mismatched interest.	<p>Promoting positive attitudes toward volunteering amongst college students can increase motivation to engage in such activities.</p> <p>Significant others or public moral norms affect students' intention to volunteer. The more profound the impact the stronger the intention.</p> <p>Students' perception of the ease of difficulty of volunteering will influence their intention to take part.</p> <p>The greater students' intention to take part then the greater the likelihood is they will engage in volunteering.</p>
5. Hyde and Knowles (2013)	Understand predictors of college and university students' intentions to volunteer for community service as well as the motivations and constraints for volunteering in this population.	Help others and support the community, personal relevance, convenience, enjoyment, develop skills for employment and study, new experiences, raising awareness, moral ethical and religious reasons, personal growth and challenge,	Intention	Time constraints, lack of motivation or interest in volunteering, lack of awareness or knowledge of volunteering, inconvenience, emotional cost of volunteering, financial considerations.	<p>Encourage more positive attitude to volunteering.</p> <p>Support and encouragement from significant others will positively influence intention to volunteer.</p> <p>Students who feel confident will be more likely to express intentions.</p> <p>Students with a sense or moral and ethical responsibility displayed</p>

		belief in organisational values and work.			greater intention when the volunteering activity was associated with helping those in need or a community perceived as meaningful or of personal relevance.
6. Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014)	Measure of egoistic motives for volunteering.	Egoistic, career needs, self-protection, social needs. Reduce loneliness.	Volunteering motives	Time constraints, financial constraints, lack of awareness, fear of commitment, lack of support from family, friends, or educational institutions, transportation issues, safety concerns, language barriers, lack of interest, low self-efficacy, competing priorities.	Egoistic motives, aimed to reduce loneliness motivates students to volunteer.
7. Williamson et al (2018)	Develop a model of sustained student volunteering in a health context, specifically focusing on the experiences and motivations of university students engaged in volunteering activities within health settings.	Egotistical and altruistic motivations, such as humanitarianism, reciprocity, and self-benefit.	Sustained volunteering	Balancing commitments, Personal-wellbeing, and family responsibilities, maintaining emotional boundaries, maintaining professional boundaries, time constraints, changes in motivation over time.	Flexible volunteer opportunities, effective time management strategies, support of others.

2.4 Discussion

2.4.1 Motives, beliefs, and barriers of undergraduate students to engage in volunteering opportunities

The Findings of the review highlight that the motives and beliefs of undergraduate students to engage in extracurricular activities such as volunteering can be multiple and integrated. A theme evident across the seven studies reviewed was that volunteering participation by undergraduates was largely driven to enhancement of employment prospects and to ultimately stand out within a competitive job market (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Hayton, 2016; Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021). For students, a key factor influencing participation was personal development, self-interest, and egoistic factors (Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014, Williamson et al, 2018). The reviewed studies indicated that many students felt a personal and moral obligation to engage, such as altruistic motivations, humanitarianism, and reciprocity (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Williamson et al, 2018). This suggests that there are other factors that are related to a person's sense of self and behaviours that enhance one's perception of self that may offer a broader explanation of this behaviour.

Personal norm is considered a normative belief that is defined as the magnitude that an individual feels morally obligated to carry out an act (Sia and Jose, 2019). Personal norm considers an individual's internalised feelings about carrying out a specific behaviour and reflects a sense of self approval or disapproval (White et al, 2015). By considering individual beliefs of students concerning the act of volunteering and their internalised feelings of self-obligation and self-interest to engage this may provide

greater insights into motives of student volunteers that may not have been previously considered across literature. In the seven reviewed studies, personal norm was not included.

The review did identify that two of the studies specifically discussed students' feelings of self-interest and self-obligation to take part in volunteering opportunities (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Williamson et al 2018). Hyde and Knowles (2013) looked more closely at their participants feelings of self-interest and self-obligation to take part in volunteering activities by exploring the role of moral norm. Moral norm refers to an individual's moral obligation or duty to engage in a particular behaviour such as volunteering, based on their personal values, beliefs and ethical considerations (Hyde and Knowles, 2013). The study revealed moral norm to be a strong predictor of intention to volunteer, this suggests that students who perceive a moral obligation to volunteer were more likely to have greater intention to take part in volunteering activities. It must be noted that the feelings of obligation, with reference specifically to moral norms, might be greater when volunteering activities are associated with helping others, and not necessarily specific to enhancing employability. However, the study highlights the importance of individuals' internal motivations and a sense of duty in influencing their willingness to participate in volunteering activities. Williamson (2018) revealed similar findings in that the participants motives included a combination of self-interest and altruistic motives. Some participants expressed a desire to improve their employability skills, develop personal growth, improve self-image and others were driven by a sense of compassion and responsibility to help others.

Self-interest and self-obligation although not specifically mentioned throughout all reviewed journals may still be manifested in motivations such as gaining experiences such as coaching, acquiring qualifications or enhancing personal and career goals, which are common reasons for student volunteering especially sport students (Hayton, 2016). It could be considered that self-obligation is reflected in external factors, such as the requirements of a programme of study or social norms that influence students' decisions to volunteer. Given that the focus of this thesis is the intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer activities, and not a community project or to help others. Personal norm may be more appropriate to explore than moral norms and still permit the exploration of complex interplay between internalised motives and external factors that influence volunteering intentions.

Hu et al (2023) emphasised the importance of volunteer work within universities and the educational sector, particularly from a moral perspective. The benefits to students engaging in meaningful experiences such as volunteering are multifaceted. Numerous studies have found that engaged students' benefit in a multitude of transferable skills such as cognitive, skill, moral and ethical development (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Williamson et al, 2018; Činčalová and Černá, 2021). Also, it has been documented that students' who engage in educational activities inside and outside the classroom have a greater likelihood of succeeding to graduation (Quaye and Harper, 2014). Nygaard et al, (2013) discusses that engaged students' report they feel their education has meaning, find tasks challenging and worthy of the time allocated to accomplishing these tasks, have a general focus towards self-improvement and performance when persisting even during times of struggles and difficulties.

Činčalová and Černá (2021) report similar findings and emphasise how volunteering can support students to control stress, develop independence, communication and team building skills, and make friends. Činčalová and Černá (2021) discuss how important volunteering is to students' employability by gaining new experiences and the benefits in terms of job opportunities. It is acknowledged that although Činčalová and Černá (2021) place great emphasis on the value of volunteering and provide valuable insights specifically into student volunteering. The study was conducted with Czech college students, this may have presented a potential cultural bias. Cultural factors specific to this region may influence students' attitudes and behaviours towards volunteering. These cultural nuances may not be fully captured in the study and must be considered when interpreting the results and implications of the research. The study was conducted during a specific point in time in the academic year, this provided a glimpse of volunteering experiences appropriate to that time. It would be useful to consider longitudinal data of students volunteering activities for future research to gain a more comprehensive understanding of student engagement. A further limitation to consider was the focus of the study, which was specific to motivations, experiences, and frequency of volunteering. The study does not consider wider influencing factors, such as socio-economic background or personal values. What is evident is the many benefits that student volunteering has to offer. Wider motives highlighted by Činčalová and Černá (2021), included religious beliefs, filling free time, making new friends, using their skills, gaining new skills and experiences, and generally feeling useful were all key motives for students to volunteer. Lack of time and lack of information regarding volunteering opportunities were all key barriers for student participation (Činčalová and Černá, 2021). The study does shed light in terms of how to raise volunteering intentions for students by suggesting that growth of online volunteerism offers

opportunity to eliminate barriers to participation. The use of online volunteering may also provide inclusion opportunities for marginalised demographics. However, it must be noted that even though online platforms allow for volunteer recruitment with widespread provision of opportunities, it may alter the form of social interactions that have been traditionally sort by past volunteers. Nygaard et al, (2013) reiterate the wider importance of being an engaged student by discussing that students who are more engaged with their academia are also more engaged with their institution's governance, with volunteering and overall student activities. It is evident across the seven reviewed studies that social influence plays a significant role in encouraging volunteering among university students (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014; Hayton, 2016; Williamson et al, 2018; Činčalová and Černá, 2021; Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021; Hu et al, 2023). Hyde and Knowles (2013) emphasise that social influence, through subjective norms which represent an individual's perception of social expectations and approval regarding specific behaviour, such as volunteering, can influence intentions to volunteer. Also, when individuals perceive that volunteering is supported and valued by important others, such as family and friends, they are more likely to feel motivated to volunteer and meet social expectations and gain approval. Therefore, it is important to consider the inclusion of social influences to understand volunteering motives.

2.4.2 Social influence

A sense of belonging and sources of support both from peers and faculty and opportunities to engage or become involved with campus activities affect retention and overall student experience. Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014) found that an

overwhelming number of respondents engage in volunteering opportunities to reduce feelings of loneliness, guilt, forget their problems and assist with dealing with their personal problems. Hu et al (2023), also acknowledges the importance social pressures can have on students' decision to volunteer. Student perceptions can be shaped by social pressures of what is expected or approved regarding to engaging in volunteering.

The concept of social influence is included in The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). Hu et al (2023) used the TPB as a theoretical framework to determine intention to predicting college students volunteering participation. They concluded that subjective norm, which reflects the perceived social pressure or expectations from others to carry out a target behaviour, was a significant predictor of students' intention to volunteer. Interestingly, the strongest predictor to influence intentions was attitude, revealing the highest impact on students' cognition regarding volunteering. The findings of the study confirm that the more intense the impact of subjective norms, the stronger the intention to participate in volunteering. Hu et al (2023) further found that family support and expectations, and peer influences play pivotal roles in influencing students' decisions to volunteer. Engaging family and relatives to support student volunteering encourages participation and can positively influence student willingness to engage in volunteering activities. Strong bonds amongst peers within educational institutes further promotes engagement in volunteering. If institutes can provide guidance and develop positive peer relations, this could also contribute to the promotion of student volunteering. Also, perceived expectations from society could guide students' willingness to volunteer. Positive influences, societal expectations, and the power of being close to others could motivate students to participate.

The importance of examining social influence was also highlighted in the study by Hayton (2016). In their study they found that peer influences can play a role in motivating students to volunteer, in particular, amongst the female participants who had encouraged peers to participate. This emphasises the significance of social pressure in influencing students' decisions to volunteer. Interestingly the study revealed that the male participants demonstrated externally guided motivation to volunteer which was to complete the requirements of their degree modules. Revealing that academic or course related obligations could exert social pressure on students to engage in volunteering activities. It must be noted that the study by Hayton (2016) was conducted via face-to-face interviews, it is unclear what potential impact of social desirability bias influence this had on the participants to present themselves in a favourable manner. The study also focused on existing student volunteer motivations; these beliefs maybe differ from students who have not yet engaged in a volunteering behaviour. By understanding social pressures, educational institutes and significant others could focus on creating supportive environments that promote and support students' participation in volunteering. Leveraging social influences and promoting positive social norms could enhance students' sense of responsibility and motivation to engage in volunteering. Overall Hayton (2016) offers insight into factors that could raise participation in volunteering from students by highlighting the need to foster positive experiences, nurture social relation, provide incentives and support, and tap into altruistic motivations. A connection between the student volunteer and the individuals or the cause they are volunteering for may further promote motives for participation. A lack of connection or relatedness was believed to be a challenge and a barrier to positive motivational development.

Across literature it is still not clear the intensity in which social groups formed from integration both within and outside the class have positively influenced a student's motivation to engage. Social factors such as forming a social network may be as important as academic factors in predicting or preventing early withdrawals from academic programmes. Students' embarking on programmes of higher education will discover new social norms and required behaviours, adopt identity, or group affiliation and manage new social freedoms. They could also make individuals susceptible to feelings of isolation, confusion, frustration, and stress in adapting to student life and experiences (Gomez, Urzua and Glass, 2014). Specific aspects of cohesion, namely morale and belonging have been found to positively correlate with attendance of first year higher education students studying a sport and exercise programme (Thornton, Miller and Perry, 2019). The study by Thornton, Miller, and Perry (2019), further suggests that developing social groups and togetherness within colleges could impact on attendance and therefore the student experience.

In addition to the importance of social influence and the impact significant others can have on motivating students to engage in volunteering activities. All seven reviewed articles infer that attitudes can play a crucial role in determining volunteer motives, engagement, and experiences, which can ultimately impact outcomes related to volunteerism (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014; Hayton, 2016; Williamson et al, 2018; Činčalová and Černá, 2021; Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021; Hu et al, 2023). Griffiths, Dickinson and Day (2021) acknowledge that attitudes towards volunteering can influence outcomes such as self-efficacy, personal development, and academic success. Whereas Hyde and Knowles, (2013); Williamson et al (2018) and Hu et al (2023) specifically report that their findings

revealed a connection between students' attitudes towards volunteering and the outcomes they experienced. The study by Hyde and Knowles (2013), demonstrated that university students who report a positive attitude towards volunteering were more likely to express intentions to volunteer their time to take part. Attitude is a component of the TPB, attitude plays a significant role in forming students' intentions and behaviours, including their willingness to take part in volunteering. Hu et al (2023) further reported a significant association between attitudes and outcomes related to college students volunteer engagement. This positive association between attitude and volunteering intentions emphasises the importance of individuals beliefs, evaluations and perceptions regarding volunteering in influencing their willingness to engage. By gaining greater insights into the impact of attitude on volunteering outcomes, institutes can be better informed in the development of interventions, programs and strategies aimed at promoting volunteering activities amongst university students and thereby fostering a culture of responsibility and engagement. By fostering positive attitudes, students can be supported to gain meaningful benefits from their volunteer experiences.

An apparent theme throughout the reviewed studies was that students' motives to volunteer was the desire to gain new experiences and skills, and enhance employability (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014; Williamson et al, 2017; Činčalová and Černá, 2021; Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021). Nygaard et al (2013) reiterates this point and illustrates the need for students to acquire diverse skills to stand out to potential employers and will expect institutions to support this. It is evident with rising tuition fees and the cost of living that institutes will work harder to attract students even as employability will be at the forefront of a

students' objective. With this in mind, institutes must strive harder to ensure graduates acquire the correct skills throughout their academic studies in order to become more employable. The necessity to add value to employability enhancement and motivate students to engage through extracurricular activity is apparent. However, extracurricular activities take many forms such as university or college sports teams, voluntary work, academic clubs and numerous other supplementary pursuits which contribute to student engagement. Volunteering has a number of definitions due to the variety of activities across sectors within society and contexts. Volunteering can be defined as an active giving of an individual's time and or skills which involves a willingness to provide support which is not driven by monetary motives (Diacon, 2014). Volunteering is not regarded as impulsive but a planned act of providing help and generally occurs in the setting of a volunteering or charitable organisation but is not restrictive of this context (Rodell, 2013).

Personal outcomes should be an important consideration when examining factors that contribute to students motives to engage in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014) refer to the role of egoistic motives when examining college students' involvement in volunteering activities. Egoistic motives included career, self-protection and social motives and can be related to personal outcomes that individuals seek to achieve through volunteering (Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014). These findings lend consideration to the future exploration of the relationship between attitudes, personal outcomes or egoistic motives such as career goals of students and the individual beliefs, evaluations and perceptions of volunteering. Given the evidence presented across the seven reviewed studies, personal norm may allow for deeper analysis of students internalised beliefs and

values about the factors that influence motives to engage in employability enhancing volunteering activities.

2.4.3 Inconsistency in definitions

The term and definition of student volunteering are important, not only does this provide clarity of the target behaviour, but it can also pose various wider implications. Clear definitions encourage students to actively participate in volunteering activities (Paull et al, 2015). Student volunteering can provide valuable experiential learning opportunities beyond the classroom environment. A clear definition of what constitutes student volunteering supports in structuring these experiences to maximise educational benefits. Moreover, the development of transferrable skills achieved through volunteering will be recognised and more impactful to students with the clarity of a clear definition. Having a clear definition also enables institutions to measure the impact of student volunteering programmes, evaluate the outcomes, and strategically plan for improvement. However, is it unclear across the seven studies where the boundaries end and begin in terms of what constitutes student volunteering.

Činčalová and Černá (2021) discuss the issues of defining student volunteering when different authors provide varying interpretations of student volunteering, this poses challenges when establishing clear lines for the concept. In the study on Czech college students, volunteering includes a range of activities including unpaid work for individuals beyond their family and friends, aimed at benefiting the environment and a broader scope of impact. Yet some participants received reimbursement for expenses or a symbolic reward, the study still considered their activities as unpaid and therefore

an act of student volunteering. This highlights the blurred lines between what constitutes as student volunteering. Griffiths, Dickinson and Day (2021) further discuss the difficulties in defining student volunteering due to the diverse nature of opportunities and contexts that volunteering can occur for students. Not only is the scope of student volunteering hard to encompass, but distinguishing between formal volunteering, organised by programmes of study and informal volunteering which may be associated with personal projects and presented as an impromptu opportunity are both challenging to define. Griffiths, Dickinson and Day (2021) further discuss the complex nature of defining what constitutes student volunteering given the duration, frequency and level of commitment can vary. Student volunteers may participate in the short term or one-off events, with other students engaging in long term commitments, the study by Griffiths, Dickinson, and Day (2021) does not state if the participants within the study were current volunteers or new to the behaviour, this highlights the gaps in literature to clearly identify the factors that motivate students to initially engage in volunteering. However, the study does recognise that validating student volunteer efforts may be important for acknowledging their contributions and incentivising further engagement. Hayton (2016) discusses the complexities in defining student volunteering, in particular differentiating between intrinsic and extrinsic motives for volunteering. Hayton (2016) discusses that traditional theories of volunteering are centred on altruistic motives and selflessness; modern perspectives recognise several motives that combine egoistic and prosocial elements. Despite the fact that students may be initially motivated for reasons such as enhancing their employability profile, their motives can evolve over time towards intrinsic motives, such as enjoyment, the longer the student participates. However, the study's findings are specific to the sample of students engaged in a specific volunteering project. The sample size and

demographics of the participants may limit generalisability to broader populations of different geographical locations.

Wise, Kohe and Koutrou (2021) refer to volunteering as innately altruistic and a meaningful act. Other definitions include elements of benefiting others and longevity, with greater emphasis focused upon the behavioural view of volunteering. Volunteering is greatly seen to combat important issues such as poverty, exclusion from society and discrimination and can be seen as an aid in times of natural disasters (Diacon, 2014). Students benefit directly from engaging in volunteering through developing additional skills and simultaneously raising their employability profile. What is more, any beneficiaries of volunteering such as organisations or other educational providers gain from the additional help in time dedicated by the students as volunteers. However, Dawson and Downward (2013) contest that, primarily, volunteering is associated to the amount of free will involved by the individual. This implies that the choice to actively engage in the pursuits of volunteering to enhance employability is independently the decision of the student. However, the definition of free will is contentious and questionable in terms of the relationship with morality (Monroe, Dillon and Malle, 2014). Factors that drive undergraduates' intention to engage in additional volunteer opportunities with a link to employability is limited. Research focuses heavily on volunteering maintenance with student volunteering centred on a compulsory requirement of the programme. Literature centred on volunteering motives largely links to altruistic drivers and not a focus to improve employability prospects within an educational setting. Furthermore, research within the context of volunteering often does not follow a theoretical framework.

The behaviour of volunteering is of considerable interest to both researchers and policy makers for several reasons such as civic society and support for a social, psychological effectiveness and working for civilisation (Lin, 2017). Yang (2017) focuses on the effects volunteering can have on an individual's moral practice of concern for the happiness of other human beings, better known as altruism. This also refers to a person's quality of life both material and spiritual because of partaking in volunteering. There is some evidence to suggest that volunteering can develop altruism through education (Yang, 2017). Research also indicates that compulsory volunteering as part of education programmes to achieve module credits increases intention to volunteer in the future of students' who would have been initially reluctant to volunteer. It does not however affect intentions of students' who would have initially been motivated to engage in volunteering (Yang, 2017).

2.4.4 Personal gain

There are many advantages of volunteering and research largely supports the promotion of the act of volunteering as an opportunity to learn and develop (Hyde and Knowles 2013; Činčalová and Černá; 2021). Sector specific volunteering, such as sport volunteering, can further enhance financial gains, contribute positively to professional and personal development, aid social inclusion, mobility and capital while assisting in the improvement of civic duties and the cohesion of wider communities (Koutrou and Kohe, 2021b). Shantz and Dempsey-Brench (2022) also identify that there is a difference between the traditional views of a volunteer who may offer their time to assist with charitable organisations such as distributing food to those struggling or litter picking and those who engage in skill-based volunteering. An individual who

takes part in skill-based volunteering may offer their professional skills such as project planning or finance budgeting to further enhance employee skills and return to their place of existing employment to share those developments within the business. Though the study from Shantz and Dempsey-Brench (2022) focuses upon volunteering within the workplace for existing employees the findings offer insight into the benefits of volunteering with a purpose to develop skills like those needed for students striving for future employment. Their findings highlight that skill-based volunteering is not only aligned to a business or organisation but a strategically driven activity that can provide opportunities for students from disadvantaged areas. The findings further highlighted that when employees engaged in skill-based volunteering this aided the promotional awareness of the organisations industry sector. In addition to this, future apprenticeships and graduate schemes were created.

Students who volunteer in extracurricular activities and work placement opportunities benefit in a multitude of transferrable skills (Khasanzyanova, 2017). Volunteering also has a positive impact on numerous health related aspects. Psychological wellbeing, sense of purpose, self-esteem and overall quality of life are all positively influenced by the engagement in volunteering (Williamson et al, 2018). Individuals who engage in a minimum of 100 hours volunteering have reported the most significant benefits however, the clear associations were only evident in individuals aged over 40. Even though Williamson et al, (2018) highlights that student volunteering can aid the development of resilience, assist in making meaningful connections, and helps to keep the balance as essential themes in maintaining sustained volunteering. It must be acknowledged that a main limitation to the findings is the absence of Male volunteers

from the subgroup of ex-volunteers within the study. This may have resulted in more elements of student volunteering being under explored.

Volunteering is an area of interest that is becoming more favourable for individuals who can separate it from other activities in their lives. Many students are also committed to working in a variety of part time and full time employed roles to support their finances through studying. Lack of time is highlighted across the critically reviewed studies as a key barrier for students to participate in volunteering (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Williamson et al, 2018; Činčalová and Černá, 2021; Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021; Hu et al, 2023). It is still unclear what impact volunteering has on the existing workplace commitments. For example, volunteering can be beneficial to overall employability and career progression but can also be a distraction that can harm existing job performances. It is evident that the volunteering is positively associated to certain attitudes especially by prospective employers however, it is unclear if taking part in volunteering can negatively impact other aspects of work life commitments and if this affects individuals' decisions to engage. It is an area of interest to understand what differentiates the students who proactively seek this experience and those who partake due to expectations placed upon them in acquiring their qualifications. An understanding of how to increase students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities would not only support graduate prospects but also overall student experience. It would also benefit future employers, organisations, and institutions by having an engaged campus that encourages networking with external partners and the community. In addition to this, the students learn in an industry specific setting and develop desirable key employability skills.

Motives of those who choose to actively engage in volunteering are varied. Individuals volunteer for several reasons ranging from the love of a particular sector, this can be seen across sports volunteers at various events, to belonging to a community, socialisations, altruistic motives, professional career development or educational achievement goals (Koutrou and Kohe, 2021a). Within sport, the act of volunteering is considered of great importance with volunteering contributing to society's ability to function and work together and allowing a network of social activity (Koutrou and Kohe, 2021a). Dawson and Downward (2013) reveal that motives for individuals to volunteer specifically within sport include a desire to contribute to the sport itself and the community. Volunteering can allow individuals to connect with family and grow friendships, gain life experiences, develop skills and growth of personal self, at the same time as enhancing employability opportunities. Sport volunteering further permits longevity within an individual's much-loved sport in the form of maintaining links, friendships, and connections with significant others beyond competitive or playing careers. Sports organisations identify the significance of embedding both formal and informal educational development opportunities for their volunteers to ensure sustainability of volunteer engagement. With emphasis placed upon the positive impact of volunteering for the benefits of potential career skill developments, social and political capital which is better known to be achieved through the networking opportunities that volunteering provides (Koutrou and Kohe, 2021a). Though sport volunteering claims to promote an abundance of transferrable skills by creating educational opportunities, it is questionable if these experiences and development of skills acquired are appropriately aligned to educational and meaningful learning prospects that purposefully develop individuals and communities. Williamson et al (2018) similarly highlights that motives to commence volunteering vary and can be

ranged from feelings of compassion, concern for others with the self-benefits of gaining employment. It is also acknowledged that motives to volunteer can change across time periods. Williamson et al (2018) found that despite the fact that students initially engage in acts of volunteering to better their individual goals, over time motives changed to partaking due to feelings of enjoyment. These motives can present differentiation between sports volunteers and volunteers within alternative sectors or organisations. Research has revealed that volunteering outside of the sports sector has different motives for an individual to engage. This can vary by gender, the mode of volunteering including the time duration of commitment and what stage of an individual's life someone is currently in (Koutrou and Kohe, 2021a). It is important to understand the motives that underpin higher education degree students to engage in activities beyond their scheduled programme of study in order to promote and encourage this behaviour and thereby benefit their employability prospects.

Interestingly Činčalová and Černá (2021) found that students from different subject disciplines did not show similar levels of participation in volunteering. This suggests that the field of study and the frequency of volunteering are related in some way and that there is a relationship between the academic discipline a student is pursuing and how often they engage in volunteering. Students in helping professions are more likely to engage due to the alignment of their studies, as well as the opportunities provided by their programmes (Činčalová and Černá, 2021). This relationship underscores the importance of integrating volunteerism into academic curricula to foster a culture of engagement among students. Furthermore, Činčalová and Černá (2021) discuss that gender does not significantly influence student participation and motives. Both male and female students were motivated by similar reasons to volunteer. This finding

contradicts Hyde and Knowles (2013) who found that gender does influence volunteer participation. Hyde and Knowles (2013) argue the disparity in engagement between genders is due to social norms and expectations of traditional gender roles that shape individual's attitudes towards volunteering. However, a limitation of the study findings is that the sample of participants were predominantly female, Caucasian, educated psychology students with higher level of education within a chosen profession that could be perceived as predisposed to volunteering.

Similarly, Dawson and Downward (2013) found that females had a greater volume of volunteering hours than males. This was attributable to the associated hours of work spent in existing employment implying females work less hours however, no further literature elaborated on the justification of this premise. The study further stated that income, education, and age can increase an individual's volunteering activity however, work time did negatively impact the time spent volunteering. Indication to a specific age that may encourage or be a barrier to volunteering was not identified and is a possible limitation within the study. Hyde and Knowles (2013); Williamson et al (2018); Griffiths, Dickinson and Day (2021); Hu et al (2023) all stated a lack of time as a main barrier for students to participate in volunteering activities. Dawson and Downward (2013) also found that age, being single and having a child under the age of 6 years was a barrier to the amount of time an individual could engage in industry specific volunteering. Full time employment, moving to a new area or home and general housekeeping responsibilities further reduced the time available to commit to volunteering. These factors largely emphasise the importance of income, time constraints and family responsibilities, and the negative impact this has on the intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Therefore,

it is important to consider factors that make volunteering more easy or more difficult for students and a focus of controllability needs to be included in a study of student motivation.

Two of the seven studies considered control factors, such as perceived behavioural control (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Hu et al, 2023). Perceived behavioural control refers to an individual's belief in their capability to perform specific behaviour and their perception of the ease or difficulty of executing that behaviour (Hyde and Knowles, 2013). Hyde and Knowles (2013) found perceived behavioural control to be significantly associated to university students volunteering motives. Students who perceived greater control over their ability to volunteer were more likely to display positive intentions towards volunteering. This suggests that a sense of self-efficacy and perceived capability to engage in volunteer activities play a key role in driving motives and willingness of students. Hu et al (2023) reveals similar findings stating perceived behavioural control is significantly associated to college students volunteering motives. Students who felt more confident in their ability to volunteer and perceived greater control over their volunteering actions were more likely to express their intentions to engage. Also, perceived behavioural control was found to empower students and enhance their overall self-efficacy regarding volunteering. When students feel capable and in control of their own volunteering actions, they were more likely to demonstrate a sense of empowerment, confidence, and motivation to take part (Hu et al, 2023).

Moore, Warta and Erichsen (2014) maintain that it is the type of volunteering activity that predominantly influences undergraduates' decision to volunteer. However, there is limited research that attempts to investigate the types of environments that are most appealing to higher education students as a volunteering setting and how these settings might be impacted by personal factors such as demographics, mode of programme, religion, and general volunteering motives.

Promotion of the altruistic effects and selflessness of volunteering as an experience is suggested as a tool to encourage the intention to engage (Moore, Warta and Erichsen, 2014). With literature implying that many motives of student volunteering are to enhance career prospects and overall employability. Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014) discuss general motives to volunteer fall within two domains, those with the purpose of serving others and reflecting altruistic benefits. Secondly, motives being a focus of gaining self-benefits and referred to as egoistic aspects. Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014) further argue that for students, the egoistic factor was greater than altruistic factors and in particular younger volunteers are more greatly motivated by self-improvement needs. What constitutes the age range for a younger volunteer is subjective, however self-interest is an important factor for students to engage in volunteering. Therefore, it is important to consider the motives specific to higher education students as this may be different to other age groups. Personal norm may be an area for future consideration given the importance of examining the internalised beliefs and values of students with regards to volunteering motives.

2.4.5 Theoretical approaches and key constructs used to examine the behaviour of volunteering

The application of a theoretical approach to research enables a structured framework to analyse and interpret behaviours, identify key themes and patterns, and determine underlying causes. Through utilising a theoretical model, a behaviour can be predicted, explained, and even controlled, allowing greater understanding of individuals motivations and actions. This can allow for greater generalisability across varied contexts and populations. Across the seven reviewed studies, six applied a theoretical underpinning. Reasoning and justifications for specific frameworks and constructs were varied.

Griffiths, Dickinson and Day (2021) applied Bandura's domain-specific self-efficacy framework to assess students' beliefs in their capabilities to perform specific tasks such as academic, social interactions and extracurricular activities. Griffiths, Dickinson and Day (2021) highlight the benefits of applying Bandura's domain specific self-efficacy framework allowed a focused assessment for self-efficacy beliefs. Further providing a detailed understanding of students' confidence levels for participation in extracurricular activities and enabling contextual relevance in shaping students' self-efficacy beliefs. The relationship between self-efficacy and participation was found to be significant, with a meaningful impact on students' experiences and outcomes. Higher levels of self-efficacy were associated to increased participation in a variety of activities; greater levels of resilience and determination; sustained engagement; greater willingness to engage in activities requiring skill-building and activities leading to personal growth and enhanced capabilities; increased confidence and self-

perception; increased ability to communicate and build relationships and overall wellbeing. The combination of self-efficacy and participation in extracurricular activities was shown to contribute to students' personal growth and overall well-being and have long term benefits for students' employability and success in their future careers.

Yet, the study by Griffiths, Dickinson and Day (2021) still revealed limitations to applying Bandura's domain specific self-efficacy framework. The measurement of self-efficacy to multiple domains within the study required comprehensive measurement tools which was noted to be time consuming and challenging to implement. Even though it was a strength of the study to apply the theoretical framework allowing for nuanced analysis of self-efficacy, the study may have overlooked the interconnectedness and wider interactions among the different domains in the study. Students' experiences in one domain such as extracurricular activities may have influenced self-efficacy in other domains such as academia. The use of self-reported data can be subjective and influenced by individual perceptions and biases further limiting the generalisability to broader populations. Overall, the relationship between self-efficacy and participation in extracurricular activities is revealed as multifaceted, with self-efficacy beliefs influencing students' motivation across several key areas including future career prospects. This study demonstrates the benefits of applying a theoretical framework.

Self-reported questionnaires were used across five of the seven studies reviewed. It is noted that self-reported questionnaires have limitations in terms of subjectivity. However, the use of self-reported questionnaires is commonly used across research studies to collect data on individual's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours (Hyde and

Knowles, 2013; Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014; Činčalová and Černá, 2021; Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021; Hu et al, 2023). The use of self-reported measures enables researchers to capture participants subjective experiences and perspectives and provide valuable insights into the target behaviours.

Hayton (2016) aimed to understand the evolving motivations of student volunteers, therefore applied The Self-Determination Theory (SDT) in a sports-based outreach project. The application of SDT placed emphasis on the importance of autonomy and self-determination allowing an exploration of student volunteer motives and the shift from externally regulated behaviours to autonomous self-endorsed reasons for volunteering, such as enjoyment and personal fulfilment (Hayton, 2016). The application of SDT enabled a comprehensive framework and understanding of student motivations for volunteering and enabled the researchers to track the progression towards more self-determined forms of motivations. However, like Griffiths, Dickinson and Day (2021) and the multiple domains, it was the multiple constructs of SDT such as autonomy, competence and relatedness that meant measurement was complex and challenging. The accurate assessment of multiple constructs and their interplay in the context of student volunteering can potentially pose methodological challenges. Although the SDT allowed a robust theoretical framework for understanding motivations of student volunteers, the application in specific contexts may have had limited generalisability of findings to wider populations. The study by Hayton (2016) and the unique characteristics of the SUNEE project and the student volunteers may have influenced the applicability of SDT beyond this particular study. Overall, the application of SDT does offer a theoretical foundation for exploring student volunteering motives and has potential to support a longitudinal study. The SDT still

reveals complexities and potential limitations when applying this theoretical framework in empirical studies.

Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014) utilised Functional Theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs to understand motives driving Malaysian college students' involvement in volunteering activities. The application of both theories allowed a comprehensive framework with the Functional Theory looking at specific reasons that drive behaviours and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs based on a hierarchy of needs ranging from physiological to self-actualisation needs. The Functionalist Theory supported the examination and possibility of multiple motives as a driver to participation in volunteering. With Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs providing insights into how different levels of needs, including psychological motives, influence student volunteering behaviour. Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014) argue their findings align to previous research on egoistic volunteering motives and theories such as the Functional Theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, confirming that college students share values with other age groups in volunteering activities. However, the application of the Functional Theory may have oversimplified complex human behaviours by becoming too focused on specific reasons behind driving volunteer behaviour, this could have led to overlooking more broader contextual factors. The hierarchical structure of Maslow could be criticised for not recognising that individuals may prioritise needs differently depending on personal experiences or cultural backgrounds. Overall, it is evident that the strengths and weaknesses of a theoretical framework must be considered when interpreting the findings.

Williamson, et al (2018) found similar limitations when applying a theoretical framework in terms of the subjectivity, generalisability, and time intensive analysis. The study applied a constructivist variant of grounded theory as the theoretical framework for data collection and analysis. The strengths of applying grounded theory in this study were the flexibility in data collection and analysis, allowing an adaptive approach based upon emerging themes and insights. Rich data was collected through open ended interviews and grounded theory allows for new theory development to emerge. Even though the constructivist variant of grounded theory permitted a holistic understanding of student volunteering by considering the interactions between individual's actions and meaning making. Overall, the application of a constructivist variant of grounded theory in the study provided a robust framework to examine experiences of student volunteers. It must be noted that the development of the model was focused on sustained volunteering rather than what motivates the initial intentions to take part in volunteering.

Despite literature predominantly focusing on the sustainability of volunteering, Hyde and Knowles (2013) and Hu et al (2023) both focus on students' intentions to volunteer with the application of a comprehensive theoretical framework the Theory of Planned behaviour (TPB). Hu et al (2023) utilised TPB to provide a structured approach to understanding cognitive processes and determinants of volunteer participation among students. Hu et al (2023) employed structural equation modelling to analyse questionnaire data, this was then used to establish a behavioural model of students' volunteer participation further allowing closer examination of the relationships among key variables. The application of TPB allowed for a rigorous methodology and

statistical analysis to be implemented within the study and enhance the credibility and reliability of the findings.

Hu et al (2023) included cognition as an additional construct to the TPB. Within the context of the study, the construct cognition referred to individual's understanding of their own knowledge, perceptions and mental processes related to volunteering behaviour (Hu et al, 2023). Cognitive perceptions and beliefs were considered to play a crucial role in forming attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, intentions and behaviours related to volunteering (Hu et al, 2023). The inclusion of the construct cognition added to the predictive value of the theoretical framework. Further, cognition as an additional construct can influence the formation of personal norms regarding volunteer behaviour (Hu et al, 2023). However, it must be noted that cognition is a subjective construct and again may introduce bias in self-reported responses. Measurement is also complex, when assessing an individual's cognitive processes, it must be noted that this is a multifaceted area. To measure cognitive aspects related to volunteering, careful consideration would need to be applied to questionnaires to ensure internal consistency is achieved and appropriate reliable interpretation of responses to capture diverse cognitive dimensions influencing volunteer behaviours. While the TPB allows for additional constructs to be included into the framework, thereby offering a greater holistic understanding of the determinants of behaviour and stronger predictive value (Chan et al, 2015; Conner, 2015; Cheng et al, 2019; Hu et al, 2022). It must be considered how any additional constructs such as cognitive aspects interact with the other constructs in the theoretical model such as attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control.

Hyde and Knowles (2013) chose the TPB over above other theories to predict Australian university students' intentions to volunteer because of the well-recognised predictive power. TPB has been widely used to predict and understand a range of behaviours, including volunteering (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013; Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Hu et al, 2023). Research has supported TPB and its effectiveness in explaining and predicting intentions to engage in pro-social behaviours, making it a suitable framework for studying volunteering intentions among higher education degree students (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Hu et al, 2023). Hyde and Knowles (2013) included moral norm within the theoretical framework with the aim to capture the moral imperatives and ethical values that may influence students' decision to engage in volunteering activities. Moral norm was believed to align with altruistic motivations at the same time as complementing other constructs in the TPB model. Overall, the study by Hyde and Knowles (2013) provides strong support for this extended model, highlighting the importance of control, efficacy and moral norm as significant predictors of volunteering intentions among university students.

The TPB is well supported by literature in predicting behaviour and intentions in various populations (Fenitra et al, 2021; Ulker-Demirel and Ciftci, 2020; Stevens et al, 2019). By building upon existing literature that has successfully applied TPB to a range of contexts including areas of volunteering this can offer a well-established theoretical framework. The TPB has applicability to volunteer decision making such as volunteering where individuals evaluate the costs and benefits of their actions before making decisions. The TPB places emphasis on individual's beliefs, social influences, and perceived control which aligns well with the factors that drive volunteerism. By using the TPB, specific factors can be identified and targeted for interventions and

behaviour change strategies. An understanding of how attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control may influence higher education degree students' intentions towards taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities may allow for tailored interventions to promote and support engagement. What is more, the TPB has scope to add to its predictive value with the incorporation of additional constructs.

2.4.6 Strengths and limitations

The literature reviewed and presented refers to the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses) guidelines (Harris et al, 2013). Though this critical review was not a full systematic review. The PRISMA guidance employed and referred to adds strength to the analysis of literature reviewed. This critical review of literature was not pre-registered with PROSPERO which may be viewed as a limitation. However, the review was conducted as a critical review of literature and not a systematic review thereby it was deemed unnecessary to pre-register. The development of inclusion and exclusion criteria further supported the critical evaluation of eligible studies. The guidance of the Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT) assisted in minimising bias by using a systematic and comprehensive search strategy, inclusion and exclusion criteria and critical appraisal of included studies. Harris et al, (2013) discusses that often the effectiveness of well performed reviews can be diminished when valid literature is not included due to what is considered lower level of evidence within investigations. This causes valid and important findings not to be reviewed. The quality of the literature reviewed was deemed robust and thorough by adopting and implementing the MMAT tool to assist

in the exclusion of reviewed studies (Hong, Gonzalez-Reyes and Pluye, 2018). This effectively allowed a critical appraisal of the literature and evidence to be reviewed.

Across the seven studies it was noted that sample cohorts were specific to a country, one institute or a limited number of institutes and study fields. This is frequently seen across literature whereby researchers use a convenience sample to explore and investigate their areas of concern and interest (Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021). It was apparent across the studies that the act of volunteering was influenced by normative factors and the cultural norms, values, and practices unique to each country. A strength of this review was the acknowledgment and understanding that the cultural nuances were important for interpreting study findings accurately and to consider the context specific factors that may impact generalisability.

A further limitation to the literature search conducted was the use of the term student volunteering and the varied differences in defining this act across the studies. In the United Kingdom, student volunteering is often defined as engaging in unpaid activities for the benefit of others or the community, it can be organised via university, volunteering programs or student societies (Paull et al, 2015). In Australia, student volunteering is defined as participation in community service activities to contribute to society, develop skills and gain practical experience beyond the classroom environment (Hyde and Knowles, 2013). Yet the European Union view student volunteering as a means to actively engage in society, promote social cohesion and develop key competencies for personal and professional growth (Paull, 2015). Although the variations in terms for volunteering across countries can present challenges for generalisability, a strength of this review was the robust inclusion and

exclusion criteria guided using PICOS (Harris et al, 2013). Alongside the guidance of the Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT) (Hong, Gonzalez-Reyes and Pluye, 2018). This permitted the consideration of conceptual alignment, cultural context, operational definitions, methodological rigour, contextual factors, and cross-cultural factors to explore similarities and differences in volunteering motives, beliefs, and barriers. A further strength of this thesis is that the term volunteering is clearly defined throughout as activities that are unpaid and scheduled outside and in addition to a timetabled programme of study. Not activities that are a mandatory requirement for a program of study such as placements.

2.5 Summary of Chapter Two

The results of this critical literature review have highlighted that the following themes should be included in a study of student motivation for volunteering in the context of extracurricular unpaid volunteering in higher education. Attitudes, social influences such as subjective norms and control factors.

Strategies and interventions aimed at changing behaviour should be underpinned by a theoretical framework in order to identify and understand the factors that impact students' motivations to engage in the target behaviour. Results of this review indicate that several theoretical models have been applied to understand and predict student volunteering. Only two studies used the TPB despite the fact that it is considered to be one of the most recognised theories used to predict human behaviour (Fenitra et al, 2021). The themes identified in this literature suggest that the constructs within the TPB are relevant to the study of volunteering but the inclusion of additional variables

which the TPB permits, may further provide greater insight for specific groups and contexts.

TPB has been applied to volunteering, but the application has been predominantly focused to volunteering sustainability and not within an education specific sector with a focus of employability for undergraduates. There is limited literature that has focused solely on higher education sport degree programmes and pathways. In this review two studies adopted the TPB. The TPB has been widely endorsed as a model to predict behavioural intention and actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). TPB has been applied extensively across a variety of contexts and domains with positive findings. A further strength to the TPB is its flexibility to extend the original constructs and add to the model's predictor capabilities of a target behaviour. TPB was originally formulated to account for behaviours that are not under an individual's volitional control, making this model apt for the purpose of this thesis as a starting point to the research. To identify beliefs that underpin students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities the TPB has therefore been applied as a framework to examine students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities across this thesis.

Chapter Three: Theory of Planned Behaviour and related literature review

Chapter three outlines the theoretical justifications for the utilisation of the Theory of Planned Behaviour to predict students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. Chapter three further outlines and justifies the methodological adaptations from the original Theory of Planned Behaviour presented within this thesis.

3.1 Theory of Planned Behaviour

The Theory of Planned Behaviour is a social cognitive theory of motivation that suggests intention is the strongest predictor of behaviour (TPB, Ajzen, 1991). Motivational intervention is predicted by three determinants: attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (Figure 1.2). TPB is an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA, Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

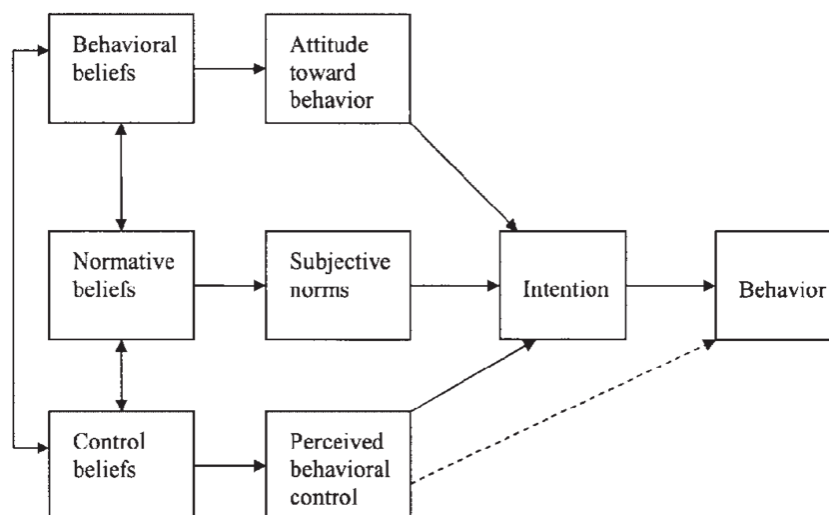


Figure 1.2 Theory of planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991)

The TRA was developed following growing concern that attitudes did not predict behaviour. It was later discovered by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) that to understand the influence of attitude on behaviour, there must be a clear difference between two types of attitudes. The first is considered a general attitude directed towards an object, the second type are attitudes towards executing specific behaviours with regards to an object or target (Ajzen, 2011). For the purpose of this thesis the target behaviour is students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Both the TRA and TPB models imply that decisions are made based upon careful considerations of the information that is presented to an individual. TRA states that the most important determinant of behaviour is behavioural intention. Behavioural intention is determined by an individual's attitude towards performing the target behaviour and their subjective norm associated to the behaviour (Steinmetz et al, 2016). The TPB was later extended with the addition of perceived behavioural control which considers that an individual may not have volitional control over their behaviour (Lee and Kim, 2017). The TRA is restricted to volitional behaviours, suggesting that behaviour is solely under the control of intention, behaviours not considered to be freely available are likely to have poor predictability utilising TRA. TPB allows prediction of nonvolitional behaviours with the incorporation of control over the target behaviour as an additional predictor.

Intentions signify an individual's motivations in terms of a conscious decision to execute the target behaviour (Steinmetz et al, 2016). An individual's attitude is guided by beliefs of the consequences of performing the behaviour (behavioural beliefs). An individual with strong beliefs and positive evaluations of executing a target behaviour

will therefore hold a positive attitude toward the behaviour and thereby result in increased intentions to act out the behaviour. Equally negative strongly held beliefs of the expected outcome of performing the target behaviour will result in a negative attitude and reduced intentions to perform the behaviour. The expectancy-value model proposes that individuals make evaluative reactions based upon their perceptions of the outcomes that may arise from a particular behaviour and the value they place on those outcomes (Ajzen, 2011). For example, students who are more likely to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities will do so if they believe that it will lead to a desirable outcome that is worth the effort and cost involved. The TPB is an extension of the expectancy-value model that applies it specifically to the context of planned behaviour. TPB suggests that when individuals plan to engage in a target behaviour, their intentions are influenced by attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Together, these factors influence an individual's intention to perform a target behaviour, which in turn predicts actual behaviour. Therefore, the expectancy model is applied through the attitudes factor in the TPB to predict intention and behaviour. An expectancy value model is useful when analysing why individuals are motivated to take part in specific behaviours. A calculation can be made concerning the direction, strength, and magnitude of attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control on intention and behaviour (Newton, Newton and Ewing, 2014).

An important consideration in the measurement or evaluation of attitude is the type of attitude and not just the interpretation of positive or negative beliefs. Therefore, the construct of attitude can be further distinguished as affective or instrumental. The affective component of attitude refers to the emotional element that drives intention to

carry out a behaviour (Stevens et al, 2019). This may reflect an individual referring to the target behaviour such as volunteering as enjoyable. The instrumental component of attitude refers to the cognitive considerations that represent the extent to which an individual considers executing the target behaviour as advantageous (Sok et al, 2021). The inclusion of both affective and instrumental attitudinal beliefs gives greater strength to this thesis. Failure to include both types of attitudes could result in missing the identification of salient beliefs and thereby negatively impacting the predictability of the target behaviour. A salient belief is considered to be a belief that is readily accessible in an individual's memory, in order to elicit and measure accessible beliefs, they must be salient.

Subjective norms are determined by normative beliefs, this refers to perceived social pressure and intention to carry out the target behaviour and whether significant others approve or disapprove of the behaviour (Newton, Newton and Ewing, 2014). An individual who perceives that significant others believe they should execute or take part in the target behaviour will be motivated and have greater intentions to meet those expectations and thereby hold a positive subjective norm. Similarly, if an individual perceives significant others would disapprove of them taking part in the target behaviour, they will hold a negative subjective norm. Any individual less motivated to comply with significant others' expectations will have a relatively neutral subjective norm. Subjective norms can be further distinguished between descriptive and injunctive. Descriptive norms refer to the individual's perceptions of what behaviours are typically performed by significant others (Wagner et al, 2019). Injunctive norms are the individual's perceptions of what they believe significant others expect them to do (Wagner et al, 2019). Measures designed to evaluate both types of norms are required

to obtain a complete measure of subjective norm. The evaluation of both injunctive and descriptive norms provides greater strength to this thesis and allows greater predictability of the target behaviour.

For TRA to be successful in predicting behaviour, the individual would need to exercise a large degree of control over the behaviour. TPB supersedes TRA by considering nonvolitional behaviours (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013). Perceived behavioural control which is determined by control beliefs, is the individual's perception of ease or difficulty in performing a behaviour (Ajzen, 2002). Perceived behaviour control is a measure of the extent to which an individual believes that the behaviour is under their control. Therefore, the influence of attitude towards the behaviour and the effects of subjective norm on intention are moderated by perception of behavioural control. A favourable attitude and subjective norm combined with greater perceived control will result in stronger intentions to take part in the target behaviour. If actual control is sufficient over the behaviour, then an individual is expected to execute intentions towards the behaviour when the opportunity is available. Utilising Bandura's construct of self-efficacy, Ajzen states that the magnitude that an individual believes they have control over their behavioural performance will influence their intentions resulting in an indirect effect on behaviour (Sok et al, 2021). Intention is the immediate antecedent of behaviour, and the accuracy and truthfulness of perceived behavioural control is a proxy for actual control which contributes to the prediction of the target behaviour (Steinmetz et al, 2016). The addition of perceived behavioural control as a construct to TPB has been demonstrated to raise the amount of variance explained in behavioural intentions and behaviour across a number of contexts and domains (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and

Foxall, 2013; Lee and Kim, 2017). The weight of each construct, attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control will vary for different behaviours and populations (Yuriev et al, 2020). Therefore, one specific target behaviour may be influenced predominantly by the attitudinal considerations, but another behaviour could be primarily influenced by the theories other constructs such as normative or controllability. It is also possible for one or two of the theories three predictors to be irrelevant and make no significant contribution to the prediction of intention (Ajzen, 2015). This can be seen when using different populations of participants (Conner, 2014). This simply implies that the behaviour or population of the participants under examination for the specific target behaviour is not an important consideration in the formation of intentions. This result would not mean that the evidence is inconsistent with a reasoned action approach (Ajzen, 2015). Factors such as environmental or the demographics of the population in question are not believed to independently contribute towards predicting the outcome of the target behaviour but do operate through the TPB constructs (Ajzen, 2015).

An attitude towards a specific behaviour displays its impact on behaviour through intentions. Intentions and behaviour are strongly related if measured at the same specificity in terms of action, target, context and time frame (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1975). To predict specific behaviours requires a measure of the attitude toward that precise behaviour. Through application of TPB a causal chain links behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs to behavioural intentions and behaviours via attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Behavioural, normative and control beliefs are commonly referred to as indirect predictors (Yuriev et al 2020). Attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control are referred

to as direct predictors (Yuriev, 2020). Direct predictors of intention are variables that directly influence an individual's intention to perform the behaviour. Indirect predictors of intention refer to variables that do not directly influence intention but instead work through the direct predictors. These variables may influence the strength or direction of the relationship between the direct predictors and intention. For example, past behaviour may indirectly influence intention through the person's attitude towards the behaviour. It is necessary to include both direct and indirect predictors of intention in this thesis to measure intention; by including both predictors this can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the determinants of intention. Direct predictors can also facilitate the development of interventions that can directly influence intention, while indirect predictors help identify potential modifiable factors that may influence intention through indirect predictors. By examining both direct and indirect predictors targeted interventions can be developed that are more effective at changing behaviours. TPB allows mathematical equations to be applied that identify which components of the theory have greater predictability in determining the strength of intentions to carry out the target behaviour. This makes TPB a useful framework to understand students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. The identification of the strongest and important predictors of intentions through application of the TPB framework allows for intervention designs to specifically target important students' beliefs and thereby increase intention to take part in the target behaviour.

The TPB has been applied extensively as a theoretical framework to predict behaviour intentions across a broad range of social contexts such as environmental (Sia and Jose, 2019); online consumer behaviour (Kumar, 2019); recreational sport activities

(Chuan et al, 2014); physical activity among older adults (Senkowski, Gannon and Branscum, 2019) and a number of health-related settings such as eating disorders (Cheng et al, 2019). Studies of correlation are predominantly used to examine cross sectional and potential relations between the TPB beliefs and behaviour (Sniehotta, Presseau and Araújo-Soares, 2014). Application of the TPB to understand students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within a higher educational setting amongst the adult students has not been studied. The TPB has been well documented with regards to its predictive validity for a range of behaviours however some studies have highlighted areas of unexplained variance in intention and behaviour across a range of behaviours (White et al, 2015).

The TPB has been widely used to explain a number of health behaviours ranging from food related behaviours (Costa, 2013), condom use behaviours (Jellema et al 2013), Sun-safe behaviour (White et al, 2015), Anti-doping behaviours in sport (Chan et al, 2015) and alcohol consumption (Hagger et al, 2012). There is a strong body of literature to support the TPB demonstrating between 40-49% of variance in behavioural intention, and a further 26-36% of the variance in target behaviour (Ajzen 1991; Watakakosol et al, 2021). Meta analysis focused on alcohol consumption and behaviour examining 28 studies revealed further strong support for the theory with attitudes having the strongest relationship with intentions ($r = .62$), followed by subjective norms ($r = .47$), and perceived behavioural control ($r = .31$). The study further reveals intention to have the strongest correlation with the behaviour of alcohol consumption (Watakakosol et al, 2021). Wong (2019) reveals that it is not limited to only health behaviours by demonstrating that the relationship between subjective norm and intention is weaker than the relationship between attitude and intention. One

consideration behind the reasoning of subjective norm being the weaker component is that the construct is not sufficient in capturing the complexities of groups influences (Leyland, Wersh and Woodhouse, 2013). However evident it is that intentions explain for a substantial element of the variance in behaviour, this still leaves a large section unexplained.

3.2 Theory of Planned Behaviour Strengths and Weaknesses

The application of the TPB holds many strengths with the capability to identify beliefs concerning a target behaviour. The application of TPB as a theoretical framework allows the identification of beliefs to be assessed for their proportion of importance for a specific population. A methodology can be applied that permits direct predictors, attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control, to be evaluated using clear and validated statements. The indirect predictors, behavioural, normative and control beliefs, can be examined using qualitative examination of the factors that impact a target behaviour due to beliefs differing depending on the varied context. Once beliefs are elicited in reference to a specific target behaviour this then allows for further statistical analysis with the goal of evaluating the importance of each belief. This can allow for the evaluation of direct predictors of intention and the assessment of indirect predictor beliefs for significant direct predictors (Yuriev et al, 2020). This further allows for a variety of behaviours to be examined across contexts as a methodological approach that gives results that enable ease of interpretation and comparisons.

The TPB and TRA are both well recognised and credited as the most influential models for the prediction of human social behaviour (Ajzen, 2011; Steinmetz et al 2016). However, some researchers argue that the TPB is in fact limited in terms of its predictive validity (Sniehotta, Pesseau and Araújo-Soares, 2014). Ajzen (2015) argues that those criticising the theory fail to see that the theory is expected to predict intentions from attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control and has been confirmed in most applications across studies. However, the prediction of behaviour from intentions can have challenges. Especially when the evaluation of intentions and the observation of the behaviour have experienced a large time lapse. This can result in changes in intention and unexpected obstacles that create barriers to individuals executing their intentions. The beliefs that were accessible in a hypothetical scenario where the TPB constructs have been assessed can change from the beliefs that are accessible in a real situation where the behaviour has been performed. However, for the purpose of this thesis and research it is students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities and not the behaviour of volunteering that is being examined.

The application of TPB has been demonstrated to be a successful model for the creation of behavioural interventions (Steinmetz et al, 2016). Yet only some of the theories constructs appear to produce behaviour change. Literature is unclear which theoretical constructs in the theory are the main influencers of change (Montanaro, Kershaw and Bryan, 2018). However, there are no interventions created using the TPB framework that aim to increase students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. The general purpose of behavioural interventions is to change the beliefs of the most important perceived constructs to increase

intention to engage in the target behaviour. In order to change beliefs to increase intention in the target behaviour it is necessary to identify what the behavioural, normative and control beliefs are (Ajzen, 2011). To identify these beliefs, they must be readily accessible, otherwise referred to as salient beliefs (Ajzen, 2011). One method used to identify salient beliefs is to provide a description of the target behaviour and ask a series of questions designed to elicit beliefs centred around the TPB constructs. This allows analysis of the identified salient beliefs to be constructed into a questionnaire and later administered, combining both direct and indirect measures. It is through use of multiple regression analysis that the weight of contribution of each construct can be measured and thereby identify the most important contribution to intentions and perceptions of control to predict the target behaviour. It is the development of the questionnaire in the later stage of the research that can also assess behavioural beliefs (beliefs strengths and outcome evaluations), normative strengths (strength and motivation to comply) and control beliefs (strength and perceived power), (Sok et al, 2021). This can provide understanding of why individuals hold certain attitudes, subjective norms, and perceptions of behavioural control towards the target behaviour. This can then allow the design of interventions to change the most influential beliefs and increase intention or produce behaviour change (Conner, 2015). Meta analyses reviews of both qualitative and quantitative studies evaluating the findings of interventions in specific behavioural domains supported the application of TPB as a theoretical framework (Steinmetz et al, 2016). The review identified that successful behaviour change methods included motivational appeals, persuasion and increasing skills (Steinmetz et al, 2016). What is more, an increase in the number of varying behaviour change methods did not add to any success of the interventions. This demonstrates the importance of applying the right behaviour

change method as opposed to using multiple methods. Group interventions had more positive results than individual interventions, this highlights the importance of social influences, conformity and feelings of being at ease to beliefs about the behaviour or own ability (Steinmetz et al, 2016). However, some researchers hold strong views that the TPB is not useful for experimental interventions. Sniehotta, Penseau and Araújo-Soares, (2014) argue that experimental studies of TPB are limited and contest those that have been conducted do not support the TPB assumptions. The critics argue that TPB does not explain how to change beliefs which make intervention studies difficult to design and implement. With the TPB offering no guidance of how to modify attitudes, subjective norms, and perceptions of behavioural control. However, Ajzen (2011) does not declare the TPB to be a behaviour change theory. The TPB is a framework to design effective behaviour change interventions to identify beliefs that must be modified and thereby produce a change in intentions. The theory was not designed to provide guidance of how to do this (Ajzen, 2011). In a closer examination of studies that have conducted interventions utilising TPB, however limited, the findings display positive effects on the theories components and actual behaviour (Ajzen, 2015). Ajzen (2015) argues that many of the critics who have reviewed studies utilising TPB across diverse domains did not involve studies involving interventions. It must also be noted that not all of the reviewed studies were compatible with TPB making many of the points raised against the application of TPB questionable. Conner (2015) discusses that Meta-analytic reviews have in fact revealed that the explained variance for both intentions and behaviour is high. Revealing attitudes and perceived behavioural control both display large effect sizes in predicting intentions and intentions mediate the effects of attitudes and norms whether measured directly or indirectly (Conner, 2015). It must be noted that these findings were within studies of health behaviours

and there are few studies that have revealed similar findings utilising TPB within an educational setting and not for the purpose of enhancing employability through volunteering opportunities.

The TPB is well recognised as one of the most notably used social psychological models for explaining human behaviour (Fenitra et al, 2021; Ulker-Demirel and Ciftci, 2020; Stevens et al, 2019). However, the TPB is often contested in terms of its use with some researchers arguing the theory is too simplistic to explain the complex nature of human behaviours. Yuriev et al (2020) criticises the theory and argues that the concept of a belief indirectly predicting intention alone and not behaviour is too basic and therefore questions the accuracy of TPB. Ulker-Demirel and Ciftci (2020) highlight the theories over emphasis on rational reasoning and lack of subconscious feelings. This aligns with Yuriev et al (2020) who argues the TPB core direct and indirect variables are fundamentally missing a number of elements that impact behaviours such as the inclusion of emotions. However, Ajzen (2015) emphasises that the TPB does not claim all people are rational or that their behaviours are performed rationally. The TPB does not assume objectivity or truthfulness of behavioural, normative and control beliefs. Ajzen (2015) argues that beliefs can rely on selective information and can be in fact irrational and unconscious. The theory merely states that an individual's attitude, subjective norms, and perceptions of control follow reasonably from their beliefs and in that way influence intentions and behaviour.

Cho (2019) identifies that the TPB fails to include an individual's goals, and the theory therefore must consider an individual's anticipated emotional consequence of achieving or not achieving a goal. Whereas Yang et al (2021) states that the TPB has

the same determinants for behavioural intentions and behaviour. Reiterating that intention directly determines behaviour, therefore providing correct predictions under clear control conditions. This then permits a measure of intention to be utilised to predict future behaviours that maybe otherwise difficult to measure. Even though the theory has been criticised for its lack of consideration for the role of emotions, Ajzen (2011) states this is a miss perception of its critics. Further arguing that the theory considers emotions as a background factor that influences behavioural, normative and control beliefs. Stating that moods in general have logical effects on belief strengths and evaluations (Ajzen, 2011). For example, students in a negative mood state when compared to students in a positive mood would evaluate the consequences of a behaviour such as volunteering more favourably and would judge favourable behaviours as more likely to occur. This highlights that emotions can have an indirect effect on intentions by influencing the beliefs that are salient in a specific scenario, in addition to the strength and evaluative meanings. However, it is still strongly contested that the TPB does not sufficiently account for emotions (Sniehotta, Presseau and Araújo-Soares, 2014; Yuriev et al 2020).

Critics have acknowledged within their claims that the TPB is consistent in the predictions of various behaviours from intention and perceived behavioural control and further acknowledge that any large changes of intentions have been noted to produce changes in behaviour (Ajzen, 2015). With this acknowledgement from critics, it is questionable why the TPB is so heavily debated in terms of its application and utility with many authors attempting to discredit the theory and yet revealing contradictions in their arguments.

A clear strength to TPB is its adaptability and practicality in that the theory can be extended with additional constructs to enhance its predictability thereby making the TPB flexible. This allows for any unexplained variance in the model to be more comprehensive in its application to target behaviours. The TPB has been largely applied to predict and understand consumer behaviour (Kumar, 2019), environmental behaviours Lizin, Dael and Passel, (2017); Cho, (2019); Sia and Jose, (2019); Fenitra et al, (2021), and health related issues Leyland, Wersch and Woodhouse, (2013); Jellema, (2013); Chan et al, (2015); White et al, (2015); Cheng et al, (2019); Senkowski, Gannon and Branscum, (2019); Stevens et al, (2019); Wagner et al, (2019); Wong, (2019); Confectioner et al, (2021); Hood et al, (2021); Watakakosol et al, (2021). Despite the fact that the TPB has been applied in the context of volunteering, this has been a focus on volunteering sustainability and not volunteering intentions (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013). There have been few studies that have addressed volunteering intentions within an educational setting for the purpose of developing employability skills. The TPB has been widely endorsed in predicting a variety of behaviours however, it is also questioned for its lack of consideration towards moral norms (Sia and Jose, 2019). In this thesis the construct of personal norm is included as an additional predictor alongside the three TPB constructs. Given that individuals acknowledge the many advantages of volunteering across a range of contexts and domains and the acknowledgement that one feels a sense of self approval in taking part in volunteering. Personal norm may provide further clarity in the prediction of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

3.3 Extended Theory of Planned Behaviour: Personal Norm

A clear strength of the TPB is its ability to involve the fewest variables with vast explanatory power (Cho, 2019). A further strength of the theory and its utility is the flexibility of TPB. Whilst the main constructs of the theory are primarily centred around three direct predictors, the theory has the capability of being extended with additional variables (Ajzen, 2011; Ajzen 2015). However, the TPB does not provide a complete account of decision making and a number of studies have attempted to extend the constructs of the theory to further enhance the predictive validity. The use of additional predictors with a theoretical justification to be incorporated to account for variance in intention or behaviour has been widely supported (Yang et al, 2021; Yuriev et al 2020; Ajzen, 2015; Ajzen, 2011). Ajzen (1991) states that additional predictors can be included in the TPB if they are shown to account for a significant share of the variance in intention or behaviour over and above the model's existing constructs. Some examples of additional predictors have included moral norms, partner norms, anticipated regret, and self-identity however some of these predictors are considered only relevant to specific classes of behaviours with others having a greater general effect (Newton et al, 2013; Yuriev et al 2020).

Yang et al (2021) discusses strengthening the influence of norms on behavioural intentions with the inclusion of additional norm constructs such as descriptive norms or moral norms. Descriptive norms consider what others will do and what is normal (Yang et al, 2021). Moral norms reflect internalised perceptions of an individual's beliefs between self-affirming or negation to a specific act (Yang et al, 2021). This has resulted in strong predictive outcomes when linked to morality or ethics (Yang et al,

2021). Personal norm is defined as the magnitude that an individual feels morally obligated to carry out an act (Sia and Jose, 2019). Personal norm can be seen as the apparent moral correctness of a behaviour or the amount of internalised feelings concerning an individual's duty for executing this behaviour (Juraskova et al, 2012). The inclusion of personal norm as an extended construct could replicate a moral overtone and predict additional variance in intention above the standard TPB predictors. Therefore, personal norm may have specific relevance in predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

Newton et al (2013) explains that it is possible for some of these extensions to become theoretically dismissed due to each extension being typically advanced independently of the other. Newton et al (2013) further argues that caution needs to be exercised in the application of additional predictors to the TPB revealing within a study that both Moral norms and anticipated regret conceptually overlap as predictors of intention. A final hierarchical regression conducted within the study revealed that an alternative of personal norm over moral and anticipated regret provided an increased proportion of variance explained in intention by 7%. Although this proportion of explained variance was lower than other predictors in isolation it does indicate that personal norm construct had the benefit of highlighting the unique decision-making processes associated moral norms and anticipated regret and further supported the need for future examination of the predictive utility of personal norm as a construct to the TPB. In this thesis the construct of personal norm is included as an additional predictor alongside the three TPB constructs of attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control.

A study predicting the behavioural intention to build eco-friendly houses revealed that relationship between attitude and behavioural intention is partially mediated through personal norm. Behavioural intention accounted for 95 percent, with personal norm accounting for 64 percent of variance in actual behaviour (Sia and Jose, 2019). Sia and Jose (2019) identified that personal norm is an acceptable mediator in the relationship between attitude, subjective norm, and behavioural intention. Displaying a personal or moral obligation as a predictor of behavioural intention along with attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control. The study further demonstrated the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention is partially mediated through personal norm with attitude positively correlated with personal moral norm.

Personal norm was originally considered as a distinct type of normative belief in the early developments of TRA (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013). However, a lack of empirical evidence to support personal normative beliefs in TRA saw the theorists discard the construct from the theory. However personal norm has since been supported as a potential predictor of intentions when related to strong moral obligations (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013). Some researchers have disputed the need for personal norm to be incorporated in the TPB stating that personal norms mirror an individual's values and engaging or not within a defined behaviour results in self-approval or disapproval (White et al, 2015). Further studies reviewed by Conner and Armitage focusing on personal norm in the context of the TPB estimated that across studies personal norm predicted an additional 4% of the variance in intentions after controlling traditional TPB predictors (Jellema et al, 2013). Given the benefits of taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities

has on prospective employability an obligation to self may be influenced in the decision to engage and the extent of performing the employability enhancing behaviour. Personal norm has proved to raise the amount of explained variance in intentions to perform specific behaviours such as dishonest actions, ethical decisions and healthy eating (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013).

Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall (2013) examined sustained volunteering within a general charity in the UK using an expanded TPB model including personal norm. Subjective norms were found to be a strong predictor of volunteering intention and as the only significant predictor of volunteering behaviour. The findings of the study conclude that volunteering is a normative behaviour. The study looked at volunteering within a general charity of the UK and therefore found that normative pressures were influential in predicting volunteering intention. Normative pressures emerged from a range of sources such as society in general, the charitable organisation, those receiving the volunteering aid and other volunteers within the same group. Within this study the normative pressure directly influenced volunteering behaviour, this indicates the strength of the normative component within the context of volunteering. However subjective norms and normative pressure may not be as influential within the context of students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities given that the same pressures from society may not be as meaningful outside of a charitable cause. Furthermore, the benefactor in this target behaviour would be the student taking part as opposed to those receiving charitable aid.

The study by Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, (2013) further found that subjective norm was directly influenced by how much volunteers believed they had control over taking part. In addition to how much the volunteers felt they themselves should volunteer, known as personal norm. Therefore, the study revealed an overlap between subjective norm, perceived behavioural control and personal norm. Further revealing that young volunteers consider that important others will only approve of their behavioural performance if they demonstrate control over it, for example having the correct conditions to execute the voluntary service. The study did not elaborate as to what age is considered a young volunteer. In addition to perceived behavioural control, subjective norm was found to be strongly affected by personal norm. Despite volunteering being perceived as a non-obligatory act of helping, the study revealed that once a commitment was made to volunteer then feelings of obligations referred to as personal norm arose to guide the behaviour.

Given the importance of social groups and social identity for university students and the motives for self-improvement and employability. Personal norm and subjective norm may result in increased pressure to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. Students may feel themselves to have a duty not to disappoint the expectations of significant others within the groups they belong to which will consequently have a positive influence on their intentions to engage.

The study by Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall (2013) further found that perceived behavioural control is affected by personal norm. Revealing that volunteers with a greater personal obligation to volunteer have a greater perceived control over the actions of volunteering. However, the findings may vary across different groups of

volunteers who may have more diverse levels of control over their behaviour. Therefore, the influence of perceived behavioural control within the contexts of volunteering needs further research to explore the influence in predicting intentions. It appears that the relationship between personal norm and perceived behavioural control needs exploring in that a sense of control aligns to a feeling of obligation.

Attempts to change an attitude and intention to engage in a specific behaviour successfully, requires an understanding of all factors that determine and influence behaviour. The TPB helps to explain and predict individuals' intention and behaviour while providing a useful framework to design effective behaviour change interventions. The theory distinguishes between motivating individuals who are not inclined to execute the target behaviour against those who hold positive intentions and intend to action their intent. With the aid of the TPB, beliefs requiring modification can be determined and therefore aid change in intentions.

3.4 Summary of Chapter Three

There are a number of justifications for choosing the TPB over other theories to predict students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Other models such as Social Learning Theory (SLT), Social cognitive theory (SCT), Health belief model (HBM) and many variations of the reasoned actioned approach have all been used to predict behaviours (Head and Noar, 2014). However, the TRA and TPB has a strong theoretical basis, both are predominantly the most widely used models of decision-making (Head and Noar, 2014; Newton, Newton and Ewing, 2014). TRA and TPB have been extensively tested and validated with the theories demonstrating their effectiveness to predict intentions and behaviours across varied contexts and domains. The TPB focuses on intention and thereby emphasises the importance of intentions in predicting the target behaviour. According to TPB, intentions are the best predictors of behaviour, the application of TPB reflects a student's motivation and willingness to engage in the target behaviour. The TPB considers three important factors that influence intention, attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Attitude refers to an individual's positive or negative evaluation of the target behaviour. Subjective norm refers to the perceived social pressure to engage in the target behaviour and perceived behavioural control refers to the individual's belief in their ability to perform the target behaviour. The TPB can be applied to a wide range of behaviours. The TPB has flexibility with the potential to be extended with additional constructs to account for any unexplained variance in the model. This makes the theory versatile and a useful framework for predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

Overall, the strong theoretical basis, emphasis on intentions, considerations of attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control. Applicability to a range of behaviours and empirical support make the TPB a compelling choice for predicting students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Chapter Four: Study One

This chapter describes Study One. An Elicitation Study to identify salient beliefs that underpin students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within sport and exercise.

4.1 Overview Study One

When utilising the TPB it is necessary to elicit salient beliefs to determine an individual's attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 2011). The elicited beliefs represent students' perceptions about the consequences of performing the target behaviour, in addition to their beliefs about the social and environmental factors that may influence their intention and behaviour. A semi-qualitative approach is advised when using the TPB to elicit the salient beliefs that underpin the determinants of motivation. Elicitation studies can assist to achieve a more detailed account and understanding of a phenomenon or topic. By identifying the salient beliefs, this allows greater predictions of students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. It is these beliefs that are indirect measures that can be combined with the direct measures of TPB to form the development of a questionnaire to collect quantitative data at a progressive stage of the research to this thesis. Additionally, the identification and evaluation of salient beliefs can form the basis for future developments of intervention studies that target specific elicited beliefs to promote behaviour change.

A target sample that is representative of the population of interest must be used to identify salient beliefs through the use of an elicitation study. It is also noted that as time and weeks progress interfering events can impact individuals behavioural, normative or control beliefs and therefore create amended intentions (Ajzen, 2011). For this reason, Study One specifically targets first year degree students studying within their first semester of an Exercise Health and Fitness or Sport Coaching Degree. The sample population that is representative of the group are new to the higher education environment. Therefore, considered at this stage to have been unlikely to have participated or participated less frequently in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities at this stage of their academics. This therefore ensures robustness to elicit the salient beliefs because participants studying at a later stage of their academics may have had past experiences of volunteering that would have impacted their belief responses.

A semi qualitative approach was selected in order to gain comprehensive truths and responses with the purpose of then generating understanding for a second study with quantitative methods and development of questionnaires. Studies that embrace mixed method approaches have had increased recognition due to the significance of the strength to adopting each approach, therefore this thesis includes both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Yardley and Bishop, 2015; Bishop, 2015). Thematic analysis was also employed to identify, emphasise, and record patterns of beliefs. The themes are relevant to the description of the constructs of the TPB. Questions followed methodological guidelines of Ajzen, (1991) and Francis, et al, (2004) and permit themes to already exist in the TPB.

Thematic analysis has ambiguous set boundaries and is infrequently recognised yet commonly used as an analytic method within psychology. It is evident that there is a gap in qualitative thematic analysis that fails to appropriately address how to apply theory and evaluate content. It is also argued that thematic analysis should be viewed as a performed process that systematically makes sense of a set of qualitative data (Moore, Hesson and Jones, 2015), whereas opposing views stipulate that thematic analysis is a standalone method. It is acknowledged that the flexibility is a benefit when employing this method of analysis, however the lack of clear guidance or rules promotes an anything goes approach to critiquing qualitative research. In order to capitalise on the strengths and positives of thematic analysis within this study, an in-depth methodology of analysis was utilised in the careful construction of code frames and overall analysis of the data.

Following a semi qualitative approach, the use of content analysis to select the most commonly mentioned responses has further allowed for a measure of frequency counts. The use of frequency counts enables all salient beliefs to be elicited in line with the constructs of TPB. The use of frequency counts enables theoretical saturation. This refers to the point of data collection where no additional themes or responses have raised any new information and all theoretical constructs have been explored and exhausted (Hennink, kaiser and Marconi, 2017). The use of frequency within this study refers to how many participants make reference to a belief and not how often the belief was mentioned in total. Therefor the emphasis of theoretical saturation also supports the sample adequacy and is less focused on sample size adding strength to the study. This then quantifies the most salient beliefs of students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities determined by TPB

variables (Ajzen, 1991). This then enables the constructs, behavioural, normative and control beliefs to be developed as items within a questionnaire instrument and obtain direct measures of attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control and intention.

4.1.2 Purpose and Aim of the study

The overall aim of the first study was to identify the outcome, normative and control beliefs that underpin students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

4.2 Methodology

4.2.1 Design

Following the procedure guidelines of Ajzen (1991). Semi structured interviews were conducted to elicit the most salient beliefs that students of higher education Degrees hold in relation to the behaviour stated above. All questions are presented in Ajzen (1991) and recommended for the procedure when applying the TPB to research. Further development of a code frame was devised following the use of content analysis for a measure of frequency counts of the most salient beliefs (Appendix 9).

4.2.2 Ethical Considerations

Ethical clearance was obtained from the University of Sunderland before embarking on this study (Appendix 7). Permission to collect data from Level 4 students at a college was granted by the Curriculum leader of sport (Appendix 5), and the team leader from the Department of Sport and exercise sciences at the University (Appendix 6).

4.2.3 Sampling Procedure and Participants

Sample Recruitment

30 students from a college and 50 students from a university were studying within their first year on a sport or exercise degree programme. A convenience sample from each institute were invited to participate, all participants were informed of the study during on campus lectures. Participants who were present within the lecture were invited to take part in the study. Criteria for inclusion required participants to be studying on an exercise health and fitness or sports coaching degree programme. Participants were invited to take part providing they were studying at level 4 and within the first semester of the programme.

Participants

Participants were a sample of 18 students. 6 students studying at a University in the Northeast of England on the Exercise Health and Fitness programme. 6 students studying at a College of Further Education on the Foundation Degree Exercise Health and Fitness programme. 6 students studying at the College on a HND Sports

Coaching and Development programme. There were 6 females and 12 males (M 20.17 years, SD 3.17).

4.2.4 Procedure and Measures

A pilot study was first carried out to check for suitability of the language used with a sport student equivalent in age to the participants in the main study. The main study participants were invited to voluntarily participate in the research and provided a participant information form with the option to decline (Appendix 3). Participants who agreed to participate had the option to leave contact details on the participant consent form and a follow up interview was arranged (Appendix 4). All information was confidential with anonymity maintained throughout the study. No data provided such as contact details were linked to data provided in the study. All forms were placed in a box for participants to leave their response thereby eliminating the feelings of obligation to take part in the research.

A coding system was employed to ensure confidentiality, and participant's details were stored electronically in a database held by the researcher. Participants were interviewed on a one-to-one basis and instructed to provide as many verbal responses as possible. All answers were written manually in addition to the interviews being audio recorded by the researcher. All interviews were conducted on campus for each institute with only the researcher and participant present within a classroom facility. Salient beliefs were recorded to the point of saturation where no further interviews elicited additional information on the target behaviour. If participants requested further explanation of the questions from the researcher this was to be provided. On

completion of data collection, the participants were offered the opportunity to ask additional questions. The participants were informed that they could ask for the interview to stop at any point and may withdraw from the research study without explanation. Participants also had the right to ask that any data supplied be destroyed or withdrawn. Participants were informed that once coding was complete, they would not be able to withdraw from the study or have information destroyed due to anonymity from the coding. All recordings were erased once transcriptions were complete.

Measures

The target behaviour was defined as ‘taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities’ that would be outside of a scheduled programme of study teaching within a two-week period. Instrumental and affective outcome beliefs were elicited with a request to list the ‘advantages’ and ‘disadvantages’. Normative beliefs were elicited by asking for people or groups of people who ‘approve’ and ‘disapprove’ in the target behaviour. Control beliefs were elicited by asking for personal or situational circumstances that would ‘make it easy’ or ‘make it difficult’ to take part in the target behaviour (Appendix 2).

4.2.5 Data Analysis

Thematic analysis was used to develop a code frame to further conduct content analysis. This was employed to identify the most frequently cited words and phrases in response to the nine questions. Outcome, normative and control beliefs were coded and represented in rank order from the most frequently cited to the least. Analysis of

the Level of agreement between two independent researchers using inter-rater reliability by Cohen's kappa was then executed. The interrater reliability for the raters was found to be Kappa = 0.93 (P<0.001) an almost perfect agreement.

4.3 Results

The results presented represent the beliefs of higher education sport and exercise degree students with regards to their intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

4.3.1 Outcome Beliefs

Responses from open questions regarding instrumental and affective beliefs are displayed in table 2.1 to 2.4.

Table 2.1 Most frequently cited instrumental advantage outcome beliefs for students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

Belief Category	Advantages Sample Frequency
Broaden my knowledge and skills	16
Increase career opportunity	9
Will impact on studies	1
Gain Qualifications	1

Table 2.2 Most frequently cited instrumental disadvantage outcome beliefs for students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

Belief Category	Disadvantage Sample Frequency
Time	15
Money expenses	4

Table 2.3 Most frequently cited affective like outcomes beliefs for students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

Belief Category	Advantage Sample Frequency
Enjoyable	11

Table 2.4 Most frequently cites affective dislike outcome beliefs for students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

Belief Category	Disadvantage Sample Frequency
Not Enjoying	3
Will negatively impact on studies	1
Uncoded	1

Broaden my knowledge and skills was the most frequently cited instrumental advantages to taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities (Table 2.1).

“It’s an advantage to put on your CV and its experience for jobs you could want to apply for or work full time in the future”.

Followed closely by increased career opportunities (Table 2.1). The common themes throughout displayed by participants was a focus on becoming more employable within a desired industry.

“I think it would be beneficial for my future...it’s not about having a degree it’s about going that extra mile not only for other people but for yourself...that’s going to make you stand out that little bit more, so I do think that is quite important”.

Time was cited as the most frequent instrumental disadvantage followed by money expenses. Time referred to other commitments which included part time occupations, responsibilities with childcare and parenting, involvement within sports or coaching which all impacted the availability of hours to commit to the target behaviour (Table 2.2).

“I think a lot of people shy away from volunteering because of the fact that it isn’t paid and it does take up a lot of time...I would be like yeah I want to do it but...I can’t afford to take that time out that’s not gonna pay me”.

Enjoyable was expressed as the target behaviour being helpful and associated with positive optimistic emotions which was most frequently cited as affective like outcome beliefs (Table 2.3).

“It would be an overall positive I should imagine like you’d get a lot out of it...it would be enjoyable”.

'Not enjoying' was the most cited dislike affective belief with reference made to a belief of gaining a bad reputation or a negative relationship formed from the experience (Table 2.4).

"It sometimes might put you off...say if you want to be in teaching and you get a bad group like clients or whatever it might put you off".

4.3.2 Normative Beliefs

Tables 2.5 to 2.6 display normative outcome beliefs from responses to open questions.

Table 2.5 Most frequently cited individuals and groups that approve of students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

Belief Category	Approve Sample Frequency
Family	15
Friends	13
Teacher/Lecturer	5
Employer	1
Coaches	1
Uncoded	1

Table 2.6 Most frequently cited individuals and groups that disapprove of students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

Belief Category	Disapprove Sample Frequency
Nobody	10
Employer	3
Friends	3
Teacher/Lecturer	1
Uncoded	1

Family, friends, and teacher/lecturer were the most frequently cited normative beliefs for individuals or groups to approve (Table 2.5).

“Think my family and friends would probably encourage.... just to get experience and if it would help with my studies then that would be why”.

Nobody was recorded as the most frequently cited response to individuals or groups that disapprove, with most responses stating that they could not think of anyone who would not support the target behaviour. Employer and friends followed as most cited with reference made to reduced time associated to these groups or individuals (Table 2.6).

“Maybe who I work for, because if I have to take time off work, they might not want me to”.

One respondent referred to the lecturer as an individual who may disapprove of the target behaviour, however this was mentioned with regards to receiving guidance towards following a focused pathway to employability (Table 2.6).

“Probably for advice reasons if you get what I’m saying...trying to sway us from going down a volunteering route that’s not aimed at the career I want”.

4.3.3 Control Beliefs

Table 2.7 and 2.8 display control belief responses from open questions.

Table 2.7 Most frequently cited personal or situational factors and circumstances that make students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities easy.

Belief Category	Make it Easy Sample Frequency
Time Available	8
Organising Placement	3
Information	2
No Further Costs	1
No Comment	1
Uncoded	1

Table 2.8 Most frequently cited personal or situational factors and circumstances that make students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities difficult.

Belief Category	Make it Difficult Sample Frequency
Time available due to other commitments and responsibilities.	11
Further Costs	5
Confidence	2
Organising Placements	2
No Comment	1

There were four control beliefs which were cited as personal or situational factors that make volunteering easy. Time available was cited the most frequent with comments made in connection with being free to carry out the behaviour. Organising Placement

was cited as the second most frequent belief which implies that if students were to organise their own placement this would make volunteering easier if they had existing connections. Information was the third most cited belief with comments reflecting the more information provided by lecturers at the start of commencing the placement would make the behaviour easier (Table 2.7). Time available due to other commitments and responsibilities was also cited the most frequently but as a barrier to volunteering. This belief was centred on the amount of time available to carry out the volunteering. Other commitments and responsibilities included children and family issues, part time occupations and generally work life balance.

“Probably just like trying to balance everything out trying to find the right life balance between Uni work, social life, family, family problems, family things so probably just trying to find the right balance between everything and not over do anything really”.

Five participants commented that further costs associated to distance and travel was a barrier to carrying out the behaviour (Table 2.8). Participants referred to the availability of transport and travel expenses being a key consideration.

“I guess money would be an issue but...I think that would be to do with travelling like if it cost a lot to get there”.

However, the implications of cost were not isolated to transport issues but also reflective of students who were studying away from home.

“You might end up spending a fair amount of money to not be there long essentially...I’m like very set with a budget being a student living away”.

An issue of confidence was identified as a barrier to taking part in the target behaviour and a personal issue that would make the behaviour more difficult (Table 2.8).

“Lack of confidence on my part I think, maybes if I had someone else to do it with I would probably more do it. Maybes the thought of going it on me own would put me off a little bit”.

4.4 Discussion

The aim of the study is to identify the outcome, normative and control beliefs that underpin intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities on a higher education Sport and Exercise degree programme.

4.4.1 Outcome Beliefs

Broaden my knowledge and skills and increase career opportunity were the most frequently cited instrumental advantage beliefs. The common theme throughout displayed by participants was a focus towards becoming more employable within a desired industry. The response of broadening knowledge and skills centred on gaining greater understanding of the suitability of chosen career paths. Beliefs focused upon increasing future career opportunities was a response by those who believed that they would gain an advantage to impress future employers within their chosen field. Participants who stated that an enhanced CV would increase future career opportunities had a belief this would aid them to stand out against rivals. The instrumental outcome belief of becoming more employable reflects research by Tymon (2013) who identifies that employability is a key graduate outcome across numerous countries and despite higher education institutes including the development of employability skills in curriculums the most basic skills are not being achieved. Solutions to close graduate skills gaps is an area that would be welcomed by industry stake holders and governments across the world and is an area for future research that needs developing.

Improve skills was cited by sixteen participants as an advantage instrumental belief however elaboration was not provided as to what these skills are. Tymon (2013) states that the primary skills looked for by employers is the quality of communication, teamwork, and integrity. This is supported by Jackson (2013) who also included self-management, analysis, and critical thinking. However, defining the term employability has been noted to be difficult and the development of such skills questionable especially within higher education institutes. It is evident that undergraduates must appreciate the importance of employability skills and showcasing these skills throughout the employment process in future job applications to enhance prospects. The inclusion of developing these skills in curriculum will assist students to demonstrate their own abilities and is something that should be considered across all curriculum areas.

The most cited affective like outcome belief was 'Enjoyable'. Respondents that stated 'Enjoyable' showed positive optimistic feelings that referred to the personal gains of doing the target behaviour for themselves, going the extra mile and having a positive experience that would benefit their future career paths. This relates to research that has argued that development of employability skills should be achieved through a process of learning and becoming by a holistic integrated approach (Eden, 2014). Through integrated learning such as industry-based employability enhancing volunteering, students can gain diverse experiences relating to positive feelings and perspectives. Eden (2014) further discusses that the ability to raise confidence, self-esteem and aspirations is more important than ticking a set of skills and competencies. This relates to the perceptions of participants within the study.

Enjoyable was expressed as a positive belief that academic qualifications alone were not enough to guarantee employment and that the participants needed to go the extra mile and stand out from other applicants. It was the belief that the target behaviour would assist in this achievement and goal and therefore expressed in an optimistic light. This links to research that reiterates that in addition to qualifications graduates must possess qualities and capabilities that are required for a competitive job market (Baumann, 2014).

The most frequently cited instrumental disadvantage outcome beliefs in rank order were time and money. The category time also referred to other commitments such as part time work, parenting responsibilities and involvement within sports or coaching. It was evident that students must manage a number of commitments and responsibilities however the majority appear to find difficulty in prioritising their lists. It was a general negative attitude from the participants that committing to volunteering detracts time allocated to other responsibilities and obligations. If certainty of a job prospect was imminent then participants portrayed that they would be more likely to engage in the target behaviour however if the opportunity for future employment was not known or guaranteed, then participants were less likely to engage in the behaviour. It would be beneficial to gain further understanding in this area as to which commitments and responsibilities students view as a priority or benefit for allocating time as this may largely impact the intention to engage in the target behaviour. In a study by Dong-Il and Young-An (2015) it was found that for students to be successful they must have strong self-control and time management. The study also found that the participants who were successful in academic studies even scheduled time to eat, rest and meet friends. This was achieved through distinct self-control and solid time management

which correlated to academic success. Affective dislike outcome beliefs were focused towards negative feelings expressed as worry in the eventuality of a bad experience that would be detrimental to overall motivation to study and gain a bad image that would reduce chances of future employability. However, it is arguable that these viewpoints may be a reflection of a lack of confidence in the individual's ability and in fact better represent control beliefs. Dong-Il and Young-An (2015) state that some of the main factors which contribute to student success are self-efficacy, self-discipline, and resilience.

4.4.2 Normative Beliefs

Individuals or groups that would approve of the target behaviour ranked highest as family, friends, teacher and lecturers. Highest ranked for those who would disprove of the target behaviour showed 'nobody' as the most frequently cited response followed by employer and friends. Respondents who stated employers and friends as individuals or groups that may disapprove were largely stated as a belief that the target behaviour would coincide with time allocated for working or social activities. With difficulty to identify anyone who would be against the prospects of volunteering due to the target behaviour being viewed with the belief that significant others would highly support the behaviour was challenging for the majority of participants. It is questionable how much of an impact normative beliefs have on the predictability of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities due to the minimal responses. Only few participants overly expressed the greater extent that family had over influencing their intentions to participate in the target behaviour. There is a large amount of support for the model (TPB), however the main areas of

criticism are centred on the weakness of the normative component (Wong, 2019; Yang et al, 2021). The limited depth of responses across participants in comparison to the other components to this model reflects the limited predictive utility of the subjective norm component. Some researchers have argued that the TPB needs additional theory-based measures of normative influences to add strength to the normative component (White et al, 2015; Wong; 2019; Yang et al, 2021). An area for future research within this study is to consider the individual's personal values about whether they should or should not perform the target behaviour.

Contradictory to White (2015), Chuan et al (2014) found that subjective norms are the main predictor with moderate correlations in behavioural intention when participating in recreational sports activities with specific reference made to the impact that peers can have on influencing other students to participate. Chuan et al (2014) further suggests that educational institutes would be best to encourage students in group activities or activities together with their friends or peers to enhance behavioural intentions to participate. It is noted that this study specifically refers to participation in sporting activities not volunteering, however it is still relevant. One participant stated that their lack of self-confidence would be a barrier in performing the target behaviour, although this is a control belief the participant also stated that if they were allowed to volunteer with someone, they would be more likely to carry out the target behaviour than if they took part alone. This provides possible insight into developing potential strategies to assist with motivating students to engage in the target behaviour. Further research needs to be conducted in this area as existing literature has not focused upon a specific behaviour to define engagement.

4.4.3 Control Beliefs

Most frequently cited control beliefs that would make the target behaviour easy in rank order were 'time available', 'organising placement' and 'information'. Where participants stated 'time available' this was mentioned in reference to having more flexibility throughout the day to engage in the target behaviour. Participants frequently used the example of a good timetable as something that would allow more available or free time. The implementation of flexible volunteering work placement hours within a curriculum programme may be one method via which engagement of this behaviour could increase overall for future cohorts of students. 'Organising placement' was stated partly on the assumption that the participant would need to organise their own placement however this was not clarified to participants whether the placement would be provided or organised on behalf of the student. This may have impacted the response of the category 'information'. Participants who stated information as a factor that aids to making the target behaviour easier were stating this with regards to having further information about the volunteering prospects or placement would make the behaviour easier to commit too.

Most frequently cited control beliefs that would make the target behaviour more difficult were stated in rank order as 'time available for other commitments and responsibilities' and 'further costs'. Time available for other commitments and responsibilities scored highest in frequency of responses with reference made to any time dependent activity, these activities included children, family issues, studies, life balance, time, timetables, part time jobs or sporting commitments. It is evident that the participants have numerous commitments however it appears that some are conflicting. One participant

acknowledged that his earnings come from playing football, which was evidently a primary focus in his life however would be willing to miss football providing volunteering provides long term benefits. Dong-Il and Young-An (2015) show that students agreed with the need to display self-control with time management to achieve success. Institutes place expectation on students to be independent and work effectively to have self-supervision and a system of planning yet for students to be successful in this area they must balance work and life activities and identify where priorities should be placed. This further draws on the need to incorporate the additional variable personal norm for future studies that identifies with individual's personal need to engage in the target behaviour. It is however subjective as to what the participant identifies as beneficial.

Further costs were stated as a barrier to engaging in the target behaviour due to ease or lack of transport. Those who stated further costs as making the target behaviour difficult were referring specifically to the cost of travelling such as petrol money, distance to be travelled or exceeding the student budget in which they were primarily living from.

4.4.4 Strengths, Limitations and Recommendations for further research.

The strength of this study lies in the application of the TPB to identify beliefs that underpin students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within higher education Sport and Exercise degree programmes. By implementing this framework, it included a greater range of factors that has been considered by empirical research. The qualitative approach further aided in the

evaluation and identification of saliency and clarity of identified constructs with appropriate language used within the interview schedule which further allowed for the creation of suitable response formats. Due to the effective systematic processes of qualitative analysis, thematic analysis and content analysis. It is a strength of the study that detailed documentation of analytic decisions were made (Appendix 8). Code frames were continuously revised with definitions described and examples provided. This ensured a robust analysis that allowed for a second researcher to analyse the same data in the same method and deduce similar conclusions. Through robust analysis clear decisions were made with regards to participant responses with differentiation between constructs made appropriately. Analysis and allocation of participant responses to allocated constructs was further permitted due to the clear distinction between affective and instrumental beliefs in the data collection and analysis of the content.

The use of open-ended elicitation questions during interviews were a further strength to the study. With some studies only choosing direct measures, claiming this to be adequate in the identification of salient beliefs (Chan et al, 2015). Study One of this thesis has carefully elicited most salient beliefs and thereby identified specific information regarding participants intentions to engage in industry specific volunteering outside of a programme of study. To be confident that the most salient beliefs were elicited the use of frequency counts has enabled the identification of theoretical saturation. Thereby ensuring that all constructs were fully explored and supported. By eliciting the most salient beliefs within Study One, this informs the development of future interventions aimed to change students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

A total of eighteen participants took part in the study, Francis et al (2004) recommends approximately 25 participants to conduct an elicitation study, however, further states the sample size maybe adjusted in relation to the values of qualitative research methodologies. Hennink, Kaiser and Marconi (2017) found that nine interviews were the ideal number for saturation and identification of common thematic issues. Further arguing that the frequency of the issue or theme alone is not sufficient for analysis but more importantly the richness of the data from an issue that contributes to the understanding of it. This study has carefully considered the frequency of the themes expressed by participants in addition to the interpretation of the beliefs elicited from each participant in a robust analysis. Therefore, the study appropriately represented subgroups of the sample populations and data collection was continued until a point of saturation was adequately achieved. Thus, revealing no further new elicited beliefs from the participants and thereby justifying the appropriate number of participants at the ideal number of eighteen.

A plausible limitation to the data collection of the study is the consideration of the sample population as a convenience sample. Twelve of the eighteen participants were known to the researcher via educational pathways of study. It is considered that the social desirability bias can create complications in interpreting and analysing the findings (Bergen and Labonte, 2020). However, strategies to reduce social desirability bias were employed and the locations of interviews that were conducted were private with participants meeting criteria of selection for those who voluntarily took part. The aims and objectives of the study were carefully explained with detailed explanations as to how the data would be used and how confidentiality and anonymity maintained

throughout the study. With complete disclosure provided to the participants this aided the comfort and understanding of the participants that their beliefs were not a check or evaluation of their academic performance or commitment to their programme of study. It was also made clear that the study focused on their intentions to engage in the act of employability enhancing volunteering outside of a programme of study, and that they were not expected to carry out the actual volunteering as a result of taking part in the study. The full disclosure of the purpose of the study and full explanations to the aims and objectives further reduced any social desirability bias. The use of indirect measurements further allowed for most salient beliefs to be elicited and thereby reduce any social desirability effects.

The findings of this study not only provide insight into the possible considerations for educational curriculum development. They also offer insight to the important social relevance for charitable organisations and groups. Further enabling a focused approach for promotional campaigns designed to increase levels of volunteering and enhance overall civic society. Consequently, an understanding of factors that lead students to seek out and maintain their volunteering opportunities is vital. Further research examining how to change the negative beliefs that students' hold about taking part in volunteering opportunities into positive motivational beliefs could positively impact future strategies within education.

Research has indicated that students are positively influenced by factors such as learning strategies, the interaction between students and staff, and peer support (Mazerolle and Dodge, 2014; Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014; Thornton, Miller and Perry, 2019). Yet often the focus has been on academic achievement in general and

not specifically to a target behaviour of engagement (Dong-II and Young-An, 2015). In addition, research has also paid focus to the climate of environment factors such as college support as opposed to individual factors such as personality, study habits or mental health and wellbeing. One participant's responses were impacted by his own perception of physical health, during the time of interview he was receiving ongoing treatment for cancer.

First year degree students were specifically targeted as a sample group due to commencing an undergrad programme of study that would have been unlikely to have engaged in vast amounts volunteering activities or any at all previously. Participants in further stages of study would have been or had previously engaged in volunteering throughout their studies which may have impacted their belief responses. Contradictory to this Dong-II and Young-An (2015) believe that juniors concern themselves with academic performance and success whereas senior students are more career oriented which implies that an older cohort sample may have responded differently. A limitation to the study by Dong-II and Young-An (2015) is the lack of clarification regarding what age range constitutes that of a junior or senior student within the sample population. However, Dong-II and Young-An (2015) more broadly discuss that in the context of higher education in Korea, junior students typically refer to students in their third year of undergraduate studies, while senior students refer to those in their fourth and final year of undergraduate studies. However, it is still believed that in order to assess participant's beliefs in engaging in the target behaviour it was necessary to only use first year degree students who would not have predominantly focused on enhancing employability at this stage in their studies when they need the experience the most.

The development of the code frame was extensive which adds to the validity of the study. An interrater reliability using the Kappa statistic was performed on three occasions after revising the code frame each time to determine consistency among raters. On initial design of the code Frame the interrater reliability for the raters was found to be Kappa = 0.24 ($P < 0.001$) which is considered to be a fair agreement. On further revision of the code frame the interrater reliability for the raters was found to be Kappa = 0.90 ($P < 0.001$) an almost perfect agreement. After minor moderations to the final code frame interrater reliability was Kappa = 0.93 ($P < 0.001$) which maintained an almost perfect agreement.

4.5 Conclusion

The present study provides insight into the outcome, normative and control beliefs that underpin intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities on a higher education Sport and Exercise degree programme. A clear theme and belief expressed across all participants was that taking part in the target behaviour would be advantageous in terms of becoming more employable through broadening knowledge and skills and increasing career opportunities. Many of the participants expressed the target behaviour would be enjoyable, equally a fear of not enjoying the target behaviour was the most frequently expressed worry for affective dislike outcome beliefs. Family, friends, teachers and lecturers were identified specifically as those who would approve of the target behaviour. Nobody was cited as disapproving of the target behaviour, followed by the employer as the second most frequently cited as those who would disapprove. When employer was identified as someone who would

disprove of taking part in the target behaviour this was commented with regards to the reduced time, they would then be free to cover shifts. With time available also the most frequently cited control belief for both making the target behaviour easy or difficult to carry out.

These results contribute to an understanding of the beliefs that influence undergraduate's decisions to engage in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities and therefore will be used to inform the design of larger scale quantitative study based upon the TPB.

Chapter Five

This chapter describes Study Two. Predicting students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities: Application of the Theory of Planned Behaviour augmented with Personal Norm.

5.1 Overview Study Two

Sniehotta, Presseau and Araújo-Soares, (2014) present a compelling argument to retire the TPB. However, many of the claims and arguments to dismiss the theory are lacking in supportive evidence for their reasoning. The TPB has made many contributions to the prediction of intention and behaviour across a range of contexts and domains. With meta-analytic data demonstrating intentions mediate the effects of attitudes and norms on behaviour (Conner, 2015). One method to apply TPB to change behaviour is via multiple regression analysis to identify the key determinants of intentions for the target behaviour for a specific population. Once the key determinants are identified then they can be targeted with interventions to increase future intention and change behaviour. Conner (2015) supports the targeting of intentions as a method to change behaviour. Though the TPB has been applied within the context of volunteering, it has not been applied to volunteering with the purpose of enhancing employability for undergraduate students. Literature predominantly focuses upon volunteering sustainability and within a charitable context or from a perspective of civic duty (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013; Williamson et al, 2018). By identifying the most significant determinants for students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities this can lead to a robust

development of intervention studies. A key strength of the TPB is its ability to be flexible and change components of the TPB or extend the framework. By extending the framework any additional constructs can contribute to the predictive power. Head and Noar (2014) support the use of additional variables to explain further variance but also highlight that the additional variables may only display limited utility when applied across varying behaviours. Conner (2014) supports the extension of TPB by breaking the constructs down further. With attitudes examined as affective and instrumental, norms divided into injunctive and descriptive and perceived behavioural control into confidence/self-efficacy and control components. With further considerations and closer examination of the constructs, and by dividing the components it has revealed greater predictive power across behaviours (Conner, 2014). Also, closer examination of each component enables greater predictability for the target behaviour in question. Meta analysis studies have revealed different findings when extending the TPB framework across a range of behaviours. Ajzen (2002) acknowledges that perceived behavioural control appears to be limited in predictive power and can vary considerably across studies.

Studies across varying contexts and domains have attempted to increase the predictive validity of TPB with the addition of constructs. Extending the TPB with additional constructs is widely supported (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Ajzen, 2015; Conner, 2015; Chan et al, 2015; Lizin, Dael and Passel, 2017; Fenitra et al, 2021). Providing it is demonstrated that they account for significant variance over and above the TPB variables. One such variable which is likely to be of specific relevance in predicting intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities is personal norm. Personal norm replicates a moral overtone and predicts additional

variance in intention above the standard TPB predictors (White et al, 2015). Study Two of this thesis includes indirect measures formulated from the beliefs elicited in Study One. Combined with direct measures within the questionnaire; by including both predictors this will provide a more comprehensive understanding of the determinants of intention. Further to this, the TPB framework is augmented with personal norm. Personal norm may have usefulness in predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. Given the salient beliefs elicited in Study One of this thesis and participants acknowledgement of the overall benefits, an obligation to oneself may be influenced in the decision to take part in the target behaviour.

5.1.2 Purpose and aims of the study

The purpose of Study Two was to examine the validity of an extended TPB model, with the inclusion of the additional variable personal norm, in predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. A further aim was to identify the informational sources of attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control and personal norm by assessing their predictive validity in belief based (indirect) measures of intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. In order to do this the following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis

Intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities will be higher for individuals who have a positive attitude towards the behaviour, perceive

social pressure to do so, and perceive that the behaviour is in their control. In addition, it is expected that intention will be stronger for those who have a sense of personal obligation to engage in the behaviour.

5.2 Methodology

5.2.1 Design

A cross-sectional design was employed following the procedure guidelines of Ajzen (1991) to examine students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Data was collected using self-reported questionnaires.

5.2.2 Ethical Considerations

Ethical clearance was obtained from the University of Sunderland before embarking on this study (Appendix 10). All participants were fully informed with regards to the purpose of the study and processes of data collection both verbally, and in the form of participant information at the beginning of the questionnaire (Appendix 11). Participation was voluntary with the option to decline included within the questionnaire and consent being dependent on the return of completed questionnaires. Confidentiality and anonymity were ensured throughout the study with participants who agreed to a follow up survey were asked to leave a 4-digit code within the consent form (Appendix 12). Data was stored on a personal computer with restricted access.

5.2.3 Sampling Procedure and Participants

Sampling Procedure

The sampling frame included all higher education students who enrolled in their programmes from level 4 to 6 at one University and three Further Education institutes in the UK. A letter of invitation was emailed to programme leaders requesting participation in a study examining students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The invitation requested that the programme leader ensures that all eligible participants would be provided the opportunity to take part and have access to the information during class time in their first semester.

Participants

The final sample of 150 included 108 (72.0%) males and 42 (28.0%) female students from one university and three further education colleges in the North East of England. A total of 45 (30.0%) of the participants were studying at a UK university with the remaining 105 (70.0%) of the participants studying higher education within a further education UK institute. Of the 45 participants studying at the university 5 (3.3%) were studying sports coaching, 26 (17.3%) were studying sport and exercise sciences and 14 (9.3%) were studying physical education and sports coaching. Of the 105 studying higher education within a further education establishment 25 (16.7%) were studying HND Sport Coaching, 26 (17.3%) HND Policing, 38 (25.3%) Foundation Degree Sports Coaching and 16 (10.7%) studying a foundation degree Exercise Health and Fitness. Level of study across all institutes included 88 (58.7%) participants studying at level 4, 61 (40.7%) at level 5 with 1 (.7%) studying at level 6. Mean age across all

150 participants was 19.7, standard deviation 2.4. All 105 participants were studying on a pathway to achieve an undergraduate degree in partnership with the university.

5.2.4 Procedure and Measures

Procedure

A pilot study was conducted to assess the use of language, measure the time duration and ease of completion. All programme leaders received hard copies of the questionnaire (Appendix 13), participant information sheets and consent forms to be distributed amongst their programmes. The questionnaires were conducted on campus during normal lecture times and within a classroom environment during the first semester of the academic year. All questionnaires were distributed and collected within the same time period across all institutes. Participants could withdraw from the study without giving reason for up to two weeks after they had initially taken part. Participants were informed that once the questionnaire responses were inputted for data analysis it was not possible to identify individual questionnaire responses due to confidentiality and maintaining anonymity. Returned questionnaires that did not meet the criteria for inclusion were excluded from analysis.

Measures

'Student's intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities' Questionnaire, 2 items included demographic information such as age, gender, programme of study, level and institute. This was presented alongside direct and

indirect measures of TPB variables and Personal Norm. The target behaviour was framed in terms of target, action, time and context, as stipulated by Ajzen and Fishbein (1977). Forty-four items measured Students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. All utilised a 7 – point Likert scale with wording variations reflected by 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (7).

Direct Measures

Three items measured intention, "I expect to...", "I want to..." and "I intend to". Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this measure was very good ($\alpha = .90$). Attitude was measured using one item, "Taking part in industry related volunteering hours is....". The direct measure of attitude scale has a good internal consistency, with a very good Cronbach alpha coefficient reported of .89. Two items measured subjective norm: "It is expected of me to take part..." and "People who are important to me want me to...". Alpha coefficient was ($\alpha = .59$). Two further items measuring subjective norm were removed from the scale: "Most people who are important to me think..." and "I feel under social pressure to take part in..." revealing an Alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .52$) and a corrected item total correlation value being low (less than .3), which indicated these items were measuring something different from the scale and thereby were removed. Perceived behavioural control was measured using four items: the first two items focused on self-efficacy "I am confident to take part in..." and "It is easy for me to take part in..." and the second two items focused on controllability "The decision to take part in..." and "Whether I take part in...". Alpha coefficient including all four items revealed ($\alpha = .55$). The initial two items focusing on self-efficacy when removed

provided a good Alpha coefficient of .85 however self-efficacy is significant to the scale of perceived behavioural control therefore remained in the scale. Inal et al (2017) states that Cronbach alpha values are dependent on the number of items in the scale. Scales with fewer than 10 items can often result in a small Cronbach alpha value. Personal Norm was measured using four items: “I will feel a sense of approval if I...” and “I believe I should take part in...” and “I perceive value in taking part in...” and “I feel an obligation to myself to take part in...”. Alpha coefficient was good ($\alpha = .81$). Internal scale reliability was considered satisfactory, and the item pairs were therefore averaged to form the direct measures of these constructs.

Development of Belief based (Indirect) measures

Belief based measures consisted of the most salient beliefs elicited in Study One. In order to prevent a long questionnaire, only the top five behavioural beliefs, four normative beliefs two being injunctive items, what important people think a person should do and two being descriptive items, what people actually do and five control beliefs. A 7-point scale with variations of wording such as ‘strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘strongly agree’ (7) or not at all’ (1) to ‘Very much’ (7) was utilised. Belief based questionnaire items included measures of strength and evaluation to remain in line with the expectancy-value approach (Newton, Newton and Ewing, 2014), belief-based questionnaire items included measures of belief strength and evaluation. Evaluative measures followed recommendations of Ajzen, (2011) with the exception of descriptive beliefs. In this thesis a measure of ‘motivation to comply’ was used to create an evaluative component for the indirect measures of subjective norm. The

evaluative component of indirect behavioural beliefs was therefore measured using a variation of statements such as 'Broadening my skills and knowledge is'. The indirect normative beliefs were measured using a variation of statements such as 'My family's approval of' and indirect measures of control beliefs were measured using a variation of statements such as 'My other commitments and responsibilities make me'. Each belief pair was multiplied to create five behavioural, four normative and five control belief scores to take part in industry related volunteering.

Standard regression analysis was carried out to identify the belief multiplicative that significantly predicted the equivalent direct measures of attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control. The significant predictors were then summed to create the belief based (indirect) measure of each construct. Beta coefficients and significance levels are presented in brackets in tables 3.3 and 3.4.

5.2.5 Methods of Data Analysis

Participant responses were stored on a personal hard drive and analysed using Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS, version 22). Alpha levels were set at .05 in order to give a reasonable balance between the possibility of type one and type two errors. Descriptive analysis for all measures is presented as means and standard deviations. Pearson bivariate correlations were carried out in order to check that the aggregate measures used in the expectancy-value (belief based) models correlated with the corresponding direct measures. Comparisons between behaviours on mean scores of indirect measures are not made because the measures in each model are comprised of different beliefs and therefore were not comparable.

Preliminary Multivariate Assumption Analysis

Prior to the main study analysis, preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, independence of residuals and multicollinearity. One multivariate outlier was noted in the total behavioural intention score for case number 95. Cook's Distance value of 0.91 suggests no major problems and that the case number did not have any undue influence on the results for the model. The difference between the mean and trimmed mean values did not differ greatly, providing further justification not to remove extreme scores from the overall sample. Tabachnick and Fidell (2018), state that it is not uncommon to find several outlying residuals in larger samples and that if only a few are detected it is not necessary to remove. Tabachnick and Fidell (2018) further state that within social sciences it is not often that a normal distribution is revealed. Particularly with social sciences scores tend to be either positively or negatively skewed. This does not signify a problem with the scale, but simply suggests core nature of the construct being measured therefore these cases were not removed. No other serious violations were noted.

Main Study Analysis

Hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to predict students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Hierarchical regression analysis was firstly used to test the direct predictors of intention and the second tested the indirect predictors of intention. Hierarchical regression analysis was employed in the study to assess the unique contribution of each predictor variable in explaining the

variance in the outcome variable. By entering the variables in a specific order and hierarchy, the incremental predictive power of each set of variables on the outcome variable can be determined. Hierarchical regression analysis is a statistical method widely supported by literature to test the predictive power of variables in a hierarchical model like the TPB (Hu et al, 2023; Hyde and Knowles, 2013).

5.3 Study Two Results

Relationships between Direct and Indirect Measures

Correlations between belief based and corresponding direct measures of the predictor variable were positive and significant (A .52, $p < .001$; SN .47, $p < .001$; PBC. -.08, $p > .27$). Correlations between belief-based measures and Personal Norm were positive and significant (A .61; SN .52 and PBC .40 $p < .001$).

Relationships between proposed Determinants and Intention.

Tables 3.1 and 3.2 show means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations for predictor variables and intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Table 3.1 Means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations for the direct measures of predictor variables and intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities (N=150). Int = Intention, A = Attitude, SN = Subjective Norm, PBC = Perceived Behavioural Control, PN = Personal Norm.

	M	SD	Int	A	SN	PBC	PN
Int	4.90	1.51	1.000				
A	5.87	1.00	.553**	1.000			
SN	4.75	1.26	.517**	.363**	1.000		
PBC	5.01	.97	.210*	.249**	.119	1.000	
PN	5.16	1.06	.617**	.550**	.526**	.279**	1.000

* Significant at 0.05 Level (2-tailed); ** Significant at 0.01 Level (2-tailed)

Table 3.1 shows significant positive correlations between intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities and all direct measures of predictor variables. Mean scores indicate positive attitudes towards taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities, perception of social pressure to do so, perception of control. Personal norm scores indicated a positive sense of approval to take part, beliefs that individuals should take part and a perception of value and self-obligation in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Table 3.2 Means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations for the indirect measures of predictor values and intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities (N=150). Int = Intention, A = Attitude, SN = Subjective Norm, PBC = Perceived Behavioural Control, PN = Personal Norm.

	M	SD	Int	A	SN	PBC	PN
Int	4.90	1.51	1.000				
A	168.91	38.13	.512**	1.000			
SN	97.48	36.39	.427**	.457**	1.000		
PBC	110.68	34.58	.284**	.405**	.443**	1.000	
PN	5.16	1.06	.617**	.614**	.522**	.406**	1.000

* Significant at 0.05 Level (2-tailed); ** Significant at 0.01 Level (2-tailed)

Table 3.2 shows significant positive correlations between intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities and all indirect measures of predictor variables. Correlations between predictor variables within each model for both beliefs based, and direct measures were lower than 0.7 indicating that the correspondence between predictor variables was acceptable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2018).

Main Study Regression Analyses Predicting intention to take part in Employability Enhancing Volunteering Opportunities using Direct Measures.

Tables 3.3 and 3.4 Illustrate results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses using direct measures of all variables. In order to identify the relative importance of predictors of intention using direct measures the traditional TPB constructs of attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control were entered in the first block with personal norm entered in the second.

Table 3.3 Hierarchical regression analysis using direct predictors of intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. A = Attitude, SN = Subjective Norm, PBC = Perceived Behavioural Control, PN = Personal Norm.

Variable	R ²	ΔR ²	p	β	p
Model 1	.425	.425	.000		
A				.406	.000
SN				.362	.000
PBC				.066	.311
Model 2	.487	.062	.000		
A				.279	.000
SN				.238	.001
PBC				.019	.759
PN				.334	.000

Table 3.3 shows that the TPB explains 42.5% of the variance in intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The addition of personal norm accounted for an additional 6% of the variance. When placed in order of magnitude, the predictors of intention to engage in the target behaviour in Model 2 were: Personal Norm (beta = .334, $p < 0.001$), attitude (beta = .279, $p < 0.001$), subjective norm (beta = .238, $p < 0.001$) and PBC (beta = .019, $p > .005$). Personal Norm made the strongest contribution to the model and explained (intention), when the variance explained by all other models was controlled for. Perceived Behavioural Control displays the weakest Beta coefficient at .019 with non-significance. Overall, the final model (including personal norm) significantly accounted for 48.7% of the variance in intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities, $F(2, 145) = 34.450$, $p < 0.001$.

Main study Hierarchical regression analysis predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities using belief-based measures.

Table 3.4 illustrates results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis using indirect measures of all variables. In order to identify the relative importance of predictors of intention using indirect measures, the traditional TPB constructs of attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control were entered in the first block with personal norm entered in the second.

Table 3.4 Hierarchical regression analysis for indirect predictors of intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Variable	R ²	ΔR ²	p	β	p
Model 1	.310	.310	.000		
A				.396	.000
SN				.239	.004
PBC				.017	.830
Model 2	.419	.109	.000		
A				.196	.020
SN				.118	.137
PBC				-.030	.684
PN				.448	.000

Table 3.4 shows that the TPB explains 31% of the variance in intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities in the first step. Entry of personal norm in the second step accounted for an additional 11% of the variance when the TPB variables are statistically controlled for. When placed in order of magnitude, the predictors of intention to engage in the target behaviour were: Personal Norm with the largest Beta coefficient (beta = .448, $p < 0.001$), Attitude (beta = .196, $p < 0.05$), Subjective Norm (beta = .118, $p > 0.05$) and PBC (beta -.030, $p > 0.05$). This means that Personal Norm makes the strongest unique contribution to explaining the dependent variable (intention), when the variance explained by all other models is controlled for. Perceived Behavioural Control displays the weakest Beta coefficient at -.030 with non-significant results. Overall, the final model (including personal norm)

significantly accounted for 42% of the variance in intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities, $F(2, 145) = 26.129, p = <0.001$.

5.4 Discussion (Study Two)

The results of this study indicate that personal norm and attitude are both significant direct and indirect predictors of intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Subjective norm further contributed as a direct predictor of intention but not for indirect predictors. Perceived behavioural control, however, does not add predictive power when using either direct or indirect predictors of intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

The new construct, personal norm, was added to the original TPB to analyse students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The TPB measures of attitude, subjective norm augmented with personal norm can account for 48.7% of the variance for direct predictors and 42% of the variance with indirect predictors of intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. As a unique contribution of the study, the TPB measures can be used in understanding students' intentions to engage in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Theoretical implications

The TPB has been criticised in past studies for being lacking in the explanatory strength to predict behavioural intention (Cho, 2019; Lizin, Dael and Passel, 2017; Sniehotta, Presseau and Araújo-Soares, 2014). Ajzen (2015) acknowledges that reliabilities are scarcely reported to exceed .80 even with meticulously constructed

measures. Still, the TPB is not incapable of mistakes with regards to reliability and construct validity. Ajzen (2015) further highlights that the application of the theory with a small number of items to measure each construct is not capable of fully capturing the full underlying construct and states the measure's validity can be impaired. A strength to this study is the internal consistency measures of the direct constructs which strengthen the overall findings and minimise any issues with reliability and validity. The findings of this study take into account the theories limitations and overcomes this with the incorporation of personal norm to allow a more comprehensive model to study higher education students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Personal Norm

Personal norm accounted for an additional 6% of variance for direct predictors and an additional 11% of variance for indirect predictors of intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The results compare favourable in comparisons to Jellema et al (2013) who found that personal norm predicted 4% of the variance in intention after controlling traditional TPB predictors. Similarly, Jellema et al (2013) did not find all TPB constructs explained intentions to have condoms available. In their final model of intentions to have condoms available both attitude and subjective norms were not significant predictors. It should be noted that once personal norm and enjoyment were added to their final model, subjective norm no longer had predictive power. The TPB encourages the inclusion of additional variables, the theory itself was developed by adding perceived behavioural control and advanced from the original TRA. With many extended constructs being justified, some can be questioned

because the addition of any further constructs may inadvertently improve intention due to overlaps of the original measures (Newton et al, 2013). For example, the addition of personal norm could have improved the prediction of intention because this measure may have contained meaningful variance overlapping with attitude that may not have been accounted for by the incomplete original measures of TPB. Needless to say, the construct of personal norm holds relevance when included as a TPB measure and further research in the application and prediction of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities is an under explored area.

Attitude

The TPB argues that attitude is the direct predictor of intention behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). With regards to the relationship between attitudes and intentions, the significant findings were consistent to wider studies (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Lee and Kim, 2017; Hu et al, 2023). Across studies of volunteering similar findings have shown attitudes to be a direct influencer of behavioural intentions (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Lee and Kim, 2017; Hu et al, 2023). The expectancy-value model proposes that individuals make evaluative reactions based upon their perceptions of the outcomes that may arise from a particular behaviour and the value they place on those outcomes (Ajzen, 2011). This falls in line with the elicited beliefs identified in Study One of this thesis and the findings of attitude as the second strongest predictor of intention for Study Two. In relation to students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities this finding provides insight into students' attitudes and

intention to take part. Attitudes toward the target behaviour could be a key factor to manipulate for the future in a behaviour change intervention study.

Subjective Norm

Subjective norm was the third weakest contribution to the model. This contrasts with Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014) who discuss that significant others place high value on volunteering, those who partake in volunteering acknowledge that people they know tend to also be interested in the act of volunteering and receive encouragement from those who are close to them. However, this often refers to volunteering within a community setting and is not necessarily relevant to volunteering within an industry specific setting with the purpose of enhancing employability prospects of undergrad students. Williamson et al (2018) also reinforce that volunteers may be motivated by other volunteers and that the act itself can become habitual and socially derived. Thornton, Miller and Perry (2019) highlight the importance of developing social groups and the overall impact on student engagement. This relates to the importance of significant others and the role this can play to increase intention to engage. Williamson et al (2018) identifies that when the sense of cohesion is missing within groups and teams this can negatively impact students' abilities to volunteer. The subjective norm construct was weak in predicting intention to engage in the target behaviour, it is still acknowledged that the approval of volunteering from students' family and friends and wider network groups is important and potentially a stronger predictor of maintenance of participation in volunteering (Williamson et al, 2018).

Perceived Behavioural Control

Perceived behavioural control did not contribute as a predictor of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. TPB states that attitude towards the target behaviour, subjective norms supporting the target behaviour and perceived behavioural control over the behaviour are related and direct predictors of intention. As the TPB assumes causal links do not exist between the determinants of intentions, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. Montanaro, Kershaw and Bryan (2018) imply those links and relationships do exist by further suggesting that norms can influence attitudes. Yet the literature is limited in determining if attitudes are determinants of norms (Montanaro, Kershaw and Bryan, 2018). Perceived behavioural control and the relationship between attitude or norms is generally weak in correlation suggesting that any relationship is potentially indirect, which may suggest why perceived behavioural control did not add any predictive power.

Some researchers have raised concerns over the clearness of the perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy constructs (Ajzen, 2002; Jellema et al, 2013; Lee and Kim, 2017). Perceived behavioural control can be viewed as linked to external factors with self-efficacy being viewed as reflective of internalised factors. Jellema et al (2013) substituted perceived behavioural control with a measure of self-efficacy in their extended Theory of planned behaviour model. This substitution was made because self-efficacy was argued to be a more clearly defined construct. For example, perceived behavioural control is seen to be the individual's perception of what is within their control but can include external factors such as time and monetary costs (Lee

and Kim, 2017). Self-efficacy reflects an individual's belief in their own ability and their confidence to perform the target behaviour (Lee and Kim, 2017). Self-efficacy may be more efficient to demonstrate an individual's own assessment of their ability in comparison to perceived behavioural control.

The questionnaire for this study incorporated both direct and indirect measures of perceived behavioural control and neither measure added to the predictive power. A strength to the study was the internal consistency measures of the direct measurements of TPB. The direct measure for perceived behavioural control consisted of two items for self-efficacy measures and a further two items for controllability. The alpha coefficient including all four items revealed ($\alpha = .55$), however when removing the two self-efficacy items this raised the alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .85$). As self-efficacy was deemed significant to the scale of perceived behavioural control the two self-efficacy items were included. A further decision for the self-efficacy items to remain were the identified responses from Study One of the thesis, an elicitation study whereby responses related directly to perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy (Tables 2.7 and 2.8). Literature states that Cronbach alpha values are dependent on the number of items in the scale (Inal et al, 2017). Scales with fewer than 10 items can often result in a small Cronbach alpha value (Inal et al, 2017). It must also be noted that even Ajzen (2002) makes acknowledgement to varying alpha coefficients of perceived behavioural control measures across studies when compared to the reliabilities of attitudes and subjective norms. However, the inclusion of the two self-efficacy measures may have contributed to the absence of predictive power of perceived behavioural control in the model. This is not seen as a weakness of the study, given the added additional variance with the inclusion of personal norm but it is

a consideration for future studies to consider the importance of both controllability and self-efficacy items combined and separately. Jellema et al (2103) are similar in their findings that only self-efficacy and subjective norm added additional variance explaining a further 31.8% of the variance when personal norm was included. Lee and Kim (2017) discuss that perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy can be used interchangeably. Further emphasising that self-efficacy influences intention and is equal in power to that of perceived behavioural control. Lee and Kim (2017) confirm that TPB is valid however the validity of the theory is greater when self-efficacy is used as a measure over perceived behavioural control when predicting volunteer tourist's behavioural intentions. Ajzen (2002) discusses the need to be clear with the term perceived behavioural control and how it is interpreted. Some studies have considered questions only related to controllability; however, most include either self-efficacy items alone or a mix of both. Findings are varied across contexts and domains, yet it appears self-efficacy generally makes significant contributions to the prediction of intentions but not always actual behaviour (Ajzen, 2002). Contrary to this perceived behavioural control generally had no effect on intentions but was a significant predictor of actual behaviour (Ajzen, 2002). Overall, it appears that for perceived behavioural control, both self-efficacy and controllability should be included as measures (Ajzen, 2002). This offers insight into why perceived behavioural control did not add predictive power to the target behaviour for Study Two of this thesis. This is an area for consideration in future studies.

5.4.1 Strengths, Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

Data was collected using self-reported questionnaires, this enabled data collection with ease and reduced time scales. The variables measured were with items developed from measurements adopted from Study One of this thesis adding to the reliability and validity of the findings.

A strength to the study was the inclusion and analysis of both injunctive and descriptive norms. Descriptive norms are an important influence on intentions, descriptive norms have been shown to account for an additional five percent of the variance following the control of other TPB variables (Wong, 2019). This study incorporated items within the questionnaire that may reflect what important people think a person should do to capture injunctive norms, in addition to items targeting what important people actually do, capturing descriptive norms. Wong (2019) identifies that many studies only focus on injunctive norms, this study included both descriptive and injunctive norms adding to the validity of the findings. Wong (2019) highlights the importance of social identification as a weighting factor for future studies and argues that strength of identification with other individuals or groups then the greater the influence over an individual's intention would be.

A further strength to the study was the use of multiple items to measure the normative component. Studies can only include single items for measurement of norms however, this study identified behaviourally relevant others as the most effective method of measuring normative pressures which were identified from Study One of this thesis and included as indirect measures. For example, family, lecturers, peers, employer,

and coaches were specifically referred to within the normative items. When the normative component generalises the social pressure elements by referring to the most important others this could limit the findings. Adding further to the strength of the study was the assessment of normative beliefs and motivation to comply as proposed in the TRA and the TPB (Sok et al, 2021). If studies only assess the normative beliefs when measuring subjective norms, then this may explain the weaker relationship between norms and intentions across some studies.

It is noted that subjective norms could be influential as a means of social pressure to positively influence peers to change their behaviour and engage in volunteering opportunities presented to them across the programme. Further research is needed to contribute to the knowledge on how subjective norms vary across programmes, cultures and age groups within institutions and the magnitude that social pressure effects could have.

Ajzen argues that the TPB is superior to the TRA due to the inclusion of perceived control construct (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013). However perceived control was tested, and results revealed that the impact of perceived control on intentions was not significant.

A further strength to the study was the inclusion of both direct and indirect measurements approaches. Different methods of targeting the same construct were applied, this allowed for targeting of different assumptions concerning the same core cognitive beliefs. It is acknowledged by Francis et al (2004) that the targeting of direct and indirect measurement approaches is far from exact. However, it does permit for

scores to be correlated and is required to be displayed positively. It is therefore recommended by Francis et al (2004) to include both direct and indirect measurements within the TPB questionnaire design. To add further strength to the study and development of the questionnaire, the reliability of each direct measure was carefully considered to ensure each item within the scale had measured the same construct it purported to by using internal consistency. It was not deemed necessary to measure indirect measures for internal consistency given that an individual can also have both a positive and a negative belief about the same target behaviour (Francis et al, 2004).

A further strength of the study was the sample size and population of participants. A total of n=150 participants were studying at one university and three further education colleges in the North East of England. It must be noted that all three further education colleges were in partnership with the university. A total of 45 (30.0%) of the participants were studying at a UK university with the remaining 105 (70.0%) of the participants studying higher education within a further education UK institute. The 105 participants studying an HND, or foundation degree were studying within a programme aligned to the same university programme learning outcomes and objectives. All 105 participants were studying on a pathway to achieve an undergraduate degree in partnership with the university. This thesis is not specifically focused on either vocational or non-vocational courses but on students who would be expected to have self-interest to develop and enhance their employability prospects with voluntary work throughout this thesis. The participants within this study were studying pathways within sport and fitness or public services whereby the engagement in volunteering within industry specific sectors is expected. This adds to the reliability and validity of the

representative sample population of participants and the study outcome findings. The use of participants specific to a country, one institute or a limited number of institutes and study fields is frequently seen across literature (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014; Hayton, 2016; Williamson et al, 2018; Činčalová and Černá, 2021; Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021; Hu et al, 2023). This is well known practice and referred to as a convenience sample to explore and investigate their areas of concern and interest (Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021). In comparison, the sample in this study were from different institutions and were studying a range of related degree programmes and the results of this study may therefore be generalisable across broader target populations.

It is important to note that students in Study Two of this thesis were different from Study One in that they may have had the opportunity to engage in previous employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The students in Study One were aware but had not yet had the opportunity to engage. It is known that past experience can influence future intentions (Hyde and Knowles, 2013). Past experience however was not measured in this study. It is therefore not known if this impacted their intentions. This is something that should be considered in future research.

There are a few limitations to be considered. This study is cross-sectional and therefore does not take into account the potential for longitudinal changes in volunteering motives and behaviour. Despite the fact that gender was not a focus within the study, there were disproportionately more males than females in this sample; this may be reflective of the nature of programmes being studied and general demographics of students typically studying these programmes. Some studies

indicate that female students are more likely to volunteer than males (Dawson and Downward, 2013; Moore, Warta and Erichsen 2014), this was not confirmed by the current study and potentially due to the unequal gender distribution. For future research samples from different clusters of students studying across a range of programmes could be examined. Also, the relations and differences between demographic characteristics and additional responsibilities in terms of parenting or care giving could be analysed in further studies to have a wider perspective of student profiles. For example, whether the number of working hours of paid employment affects willingness to engage in volunteering opportunities, whether there is a difference between genders and age groups in volunteering commitment. Ajzen (2011) states that it is behavioural, normative and control beliefs that are the determinants of behaviour. However further states that the theory does not detail where beliefs originate from and alludes to personal factors such as life values, demographics, education, gender and age can all impact an individual's beliefs. It is these factors that can influence intention and behaviour indirectly and the impact on the theory's closest determinants.

Students studying on sport and policing programmes are generally expected to gain industry experience in the form of volunteering or extra-curricular activities. Činčalová and Černá (2021) state that students' within helping professions, defined as disciplines that offer direct assistance and support to individuals and communities. Will have increased intentions to volunteer arguing their findings are generalisable to similar disciplines. Given the similarities that sports coaching and policing programmes hold in terms of being helping professions, not only does this support the inclusion of policing students within the sample, but the findings also support the generalisability of this

study to similar programmes of demographic and academic disciplines. The sample population is also representative of a broad range of undergraduates that would benefit from engaging in volunteering regardless of the subject of study. For future studies it would be a possibility to include students studying across wider programmes.

5.5 Conclusion

The benefits to volunteering have been evidenced across a multitude of studies (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014; Hayton, 2016; Williamson et al, 2018; Činčalová and Černá, 2021; Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021; Hu et al, 2023). Literature extensively focuses upon how to maintain volunteering once an individual is already taking part in volunteering activities (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013; Moore, Warta and Erichsen 2014), however there is a gap in literature to highlight how to increase intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities amongst those who have yet to do so. Altruistic benefits are clearly a driver for many to engage in the act of volunteering (Yang, 2017). The findings of the study clearly indicate that higher education degree students experience feelings of personal obligation to oneself either through a desire to personally achieve employment or a duty of their programme and student community. With the findings of the current study in mind, staff at universities and volunteering organisations could promote volunteering amongst students by emphasising a personal obligation to oneself that ownership to develop key employability skills is also an individual's responsibility and necessity to acquire future career aspirations and goals. TPB measures are valid for predicting students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Personal norm contributes to the predictive

power for the target behaviour. However perceived behavioural control requires further exploration in terms of the clarity of perceived behavioural control measures and self-efficacy measures. Research considering the need for both items of measure or whether self-efficacy or perceived behavioural control are best as distinguished constructs is an area for future consideration.

Chapter Six Study Three

The following chapter describes Study Three. An intervention study to examine whether students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities would be influenced by manipulation of the outcome beliefs in Study One of this thesis.

6.1 Overview Study Three

The results from Study Two supports the utility of the TPB in understanding the beliefs that underpin students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Attitude was found to be the strongest predictor with the TPB explaining 42.5% of the variance in intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The extended model of TPB with the inclusion of the additional variable personal norm added to any additional variability explained. Personal norm accounted for an additional 6% of direct predictors and was the strongest contribution of the model with the final model of TPB, with personal norm accounting for 48.7% of the variance in student intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. Beliefs that underpin personal norm were not identified as part of Study One and therefore it was not possible to develop a belief-based intervention targeting personal norm. The extended model of TPB revealed that attitude closely followed as the next strongest predictor. The results from Study Two supports the development of an intervention that targets attitude in the context of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. For these reasons, attitude was the focus of this intervention targeting positive outcome beliefs, positive and negative

outcome beliefs and finally by not targeting any outcome beliefs. Targeting both positive and negative beliefs in an intervention is important for effectively raising intentions towards the target behaviour. Ajzen (2006) states that positive beliefs typically enhance attitudes towards a behaviour, while negative beliefs can lead to reluctance to engage. When negative beliefs are changed then resistance to take part in the target behaviour is reduced. Targeting both positive and negative beliefs can lead to a more significant overall impact on intention (Ajzen, 2006). Understanding the specific positive and negative beliefs held by the target population permits a more tailored and effective messaging in the intervention. Thereby enhancing relevance and impact of the intervention, allowing it to resonate with the students and lead to raised intentions. Literature further supports that the use of all TPB constructs as measures need to be included when attempting to change intentions (Ajzen, 2015; Conner, 2014; Montanaro, Kershaw and Bryan, 2018).

Interventions based on the TPB as a theoretical framework aim to change behavioural, normative and or control beliefs and subsequently motivate intention and performance of a target behaviour. These beliefs should be those found in empirical studies to underpin intention for that specific behaviour with that specific group. For this reason, the outcome beliefs found to underpin students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities in Study One of this thesis, were used to form the content within motivational videos which were used as an intervention in Study Three of this thesis. In support of this is the finding that attitude is the direct predictor of intention behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Hood et al (2021) states that affective associations such as emotive feelings and cognitive beliefs are a separate and clear component of attitude. When a persuasive argument relates to an existing attitude it will be more effective. Hood et al (2021) further argues in favour of affective persuasive messages over and above informational and instructional educative messages. The study focuses on females and finds that affectively based persuasive messages have a greater impact on females than cognitive based attempts. However, a limitation of the study is that it fails to elaborate on why females are more greatly influenced by affective persuasive messages. These findings are more prominent in the field of health-based attitudes and there is no research to provide insight into the impact of targeting specifically affectively based messages for students to engage in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

The use of videos to promote awareness and target motives have reported various positive findings (Pressgrove, McKeever and Collins, 2021; Confectioner et al, 2021; Özyemisci and Cankaya, 2020; Brandes et al, 2019). However, research conducting interventions on behavioural theories appears to be more significant in changing health related behaviour and intentions (Brandes et al, 2019; Hu et al, 2022).

Educational messages and presentations have been found effective by increasing positive attitudes towards prejudices and stigmas associated with mental health disorders (Bast et al, 2020). The use of particular online resources has been found to have a positive impact on college students' acceptance and attitudes towards their peers with autism spectrum disorder (ASD). However, Bast et al (2020) acknowledges that similar studies associated with mental disorders and educational interventions

have not all revealed consistent findings. Salimi et al (2021) found that the use of short educational videos had positive significant effects for willingness to donate one's cornea, the main drive and focus within the videos was to provide information about tissue donation. However, given the public lack of awareness of the issue and benefits largely contributed to the unwillingness to donate, it is not surprising that educational and information providing videos had a significant impact. Özyemisci and Cankaya (2020) argue that the use of video holds benefits over conducting motivational interviews due to time restraints. The study found the use of motivational intervention delivered through only one session to be most practical and the findings revealed effective in improving oral hygiene and flossing behaviour short term.

Wong (2019) suggests empowerment messages could be an alternative to educational messages. This may promote a greater collective of mimicked behaviour from peers and further promote the behaviour of volunteering within social networks. Wong (2019) further promotes the use of messages that aim towards encouraging personal responsibility. Whilst this setting is within health campaigns it does link to personal norm and would advocate for students to take ownership of their own development in achieving their employability goals. Overall, research is limited with regards to the use of motivational methods including the use of video. There is no literature detailing the use of videos as a motivational tool to promote student engagement in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

The study builds upon previous work with cues used in the videos generated according to the beliefs elicited from Study One of this thesis. Positive beliefs targeted from Study

One of this thesis included affective and instrumental outcome beliefs. Positive instrumental advantage outcome beliefs elicited from Study One was 'broaden my knowledge and skills', 'increase career opportunity'. Positive affective outcome beliefs targeted were 'enjoyable', this related to the beliefs that the target behaviour would be a positive experience. The negative instrumental beliefs targeted from Study One included 'Time' and were targeted as finding the right opportunity for the time available to take part in the target behaviour. Whilst negative affective beliefs identified were 'not enjoying' the target behaviour, the message finding the right opportunity with solutions to overcome these barriers were motivational messages provided for positive and negative beliefs targeted. Furthermore, normative outcome beliefs of approval of family and friends were included as identified in Study One, in addition to control beliefs focused on confidence building. Personal norm was included as a focus point of feeling self-approval of taking part in the target behaviour. TPB states that changing beliefs is crucial to change motivation (Steinmetz et al, 2016), thereby highlighting the importance of returning to the behavioural, normative and control beliefs elicited in Study One of this thesis. If effective, the developed intervention would provide all education programmes or volunteering organisations that include work placements or volunteering schemes with an easy-to-use online resource, and evidence-based approach for enhancing intention to engage in employability enhancing volunteering.

Literature suggests that targeting positive beliefs over negative beliefs may increase students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities when watching motivational videos focused on attitude change (Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014; Hayton, 2016; Hu et al, 2023). Yet Ajzen (2006) states that interventions still need to recognise and account for the differences between targeting

only positive beliefs versus negative beliefs, as each approach can lead to distinct outcomes. If an intervention only targets positive beliefs, it may miss critical barriers that need to be addressed. Conversely, if it only focuses on negative beliefs, it may fail to inspire motivation. The TPB posits that attitudes are significant determinants of behavioural intentions, suggesting that fostering positive feelings about volunteering can effectively encourage participation amongst higher education degree students (Hu et al, 2023). The TPB suggests that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influence an individual's intentions (Hu et al, 2023), so all must be included as a measure to raise intention. By focusing on positive beliefs and attitudes towards students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities, such as a sense of self approval, fulfilment or satisfaction. Then motivational videos could enhance students' positive attitudes towards the target behaviour and increase intentions to take part. Literature has also shown that emphasising positive emotions and experiences related to volunteering can enhance an individual's motivation to engage in the behaviour (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Hayton, 2016; Hue et al, 2023). For example, highlighting the positive impact that volunteering can have on oneself, such as career needs or feelings of belonging that comes for taking part, may increase an individual's intention to engage (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014; Williamson, 2018; Činčalová and Černá, 2021). Studies have also demonstrated that individuals are more likely to engage in a behaviour when they believe they have the capability to do so (Hu et al, 2023). By focusing on positive beliefs related to employability enhancing volunteering opportunities, such as skill development, networking and the resources students possess such as communication skills that make them capable of carrying out the target behaviour, motivational videos may increase students perceived control over

their ability to take part and ultimately enhance their intentions to engage in the target behaviour. Still, evidence supports that there should be a difference between targeting solely positive or negative beliefs (Ajzen, 2006). By actively addressing both positive and negative beliefs, interventions employ a more effective and comprehensive approach to raising intentions (Ajzen, 2006).

6.1.2 Purpose and aims of Study Three

The purpose of the study was to examine the effectiveness of a belief-based intervention towards students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The intervention was developed to target and try to change the outcome beliefs generated in Study One of this thesis as these were found to be a strong influence on intention in Study Two.

Hypothesis 1

Participants who watch a video containing messages targeting positive outcome beliefs or positive and negative outcome beliefs will report a stronger intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities than participants who watch a control video.

Hypothesis 2

Intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities will be stronger after watching a video highlighting positive outcome beliefs only in

comparison with watching a video highlighting both positive and negative outcome beliefs.

6.2 Methodology

6.2.1 Design

The experiment was employed to examine the effect of watching a video on five dependent variables: intention, attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control and personal norm. There were three levels of the independent variable: In condition one the video message included (positive outcome beliefs only); condition two (both positive and negative outcome beliefs); and condition three was a control (not targeting any outcome beliefs). Participants observed only one of the videos and intention, attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control and personal norm were measured before and after watching the video.

6.2.2 Ethical Considerations

Ethical clearance was obtained from the University of Sunderland before embarking on this study (Appendix 15). Permission to collect data from the Faculty of Education undergraduate programmes was granted by the primary team leader (Appendix 16) with permission to collect data from the Faculty of Health wellbeing and sport previously granted. All participants were fully informed as to the purpose of the study and nature of data collection prior to commencing the online survey using Qualtrics in the form of participant information (Appendix 20).

Participation was voluntary with the option to decline at the start of the online survey using Qualtrics (Appendices 18). Participants who agreed to participate were required to take part in a follow up survey two weeks later. On the second occasion of completing the survey participants were randomly assigned to view one of three videos; all information was confidential with anonymity maintained throughout the study. To ensure that participants were not identifiable, participants who consented to take part on both occasions were asked to leave a four-digit code (the final 4 digits of their mobile number), this allowed pre and post-test survey answers to be compared and analysed whilst maintaining participant anonymity. All answers were automatically saved to Qualtrics with access only available to the researcher. Demographic data was coded using a number system and stored on a personal staff allocated computer with restricted access using a login procedure. No names or emails were recorded, participants were debriefed through the university VLE containing details regarding reporting of results and contacted through a gate keeper who was the programme leader of the targeted cohorts (Appendix 19).

6.2.3 Sampling Procedure and Participants

Sampling Procedure

The sampling frame was undergraduate University degree students. Students from across the Faculty of Health Sciences and Wellbeing studying Sport, Exercise Health and Fitness programmes were approached via the University VLE and invited to take part. In the first collection of data 98 responses were collected. In the second collection

of data 79 responses were collected. Only participants who took part in both pre and post data collection were included in the sample.

Participants

Participants were a convenience sample of 66 volunteers who were all students studying sport related degrees full time at one University. 38 participants were male and 28 were female (Mean age 21.59 SD 4.07). 13 participants were studying at level 4, 35 at level 5 and 18 at level 6. From across the faculty of Health Sciences and Wellbeing 49 participants were studying sport coaching pathways and 17 participants studying exercise health and fitness.

6.2.4 Procedures and Measures

Procedure

All participants completed an online Qualtrics questionnaire (Appendix 17), on two occasions. A pilot study had previously been carried out to check for errors in language use and ease of completion. Completion of the first questionnaire took place during the end of semester one studies and a following occasion two weeks later. At the beginning of the second questionnaire, Qualtrics randomly assigned participants to one of three conditions to view a motivational video targeting either positive beliefs of volunteering (6.16 minutes), positive and negative beliefs of volunteering (5.59 minutes) or a control condition video (4.43 minutes) displaying footage of student experiences. N=22 was randomly assigned to the condition of positive beliefs, N=22

was randomly assigned to the condition of positive and negative beliefs and N=22 was randomly assigned to the control condition. The Qualtrics questionnaire was designed with a force response and timed questions to ensure participants who agreed to take part could not proceed without submitting their answers or fully viewing the randomly assigned motivational video. Following the viewing of one of the videos, participants then completed the same questionnaire for the second occasion. Both pre and post data collection was conducted on campus during normal lecture times and within a classroom environment during the first semester of the academic year. All participants were provided individual headsets, the researcher was present during the data collection to ensure participants who volunteered to take part fully viewed the randomly assigned video. Participants could withdraw from the study without giving reason for up to two weeks after they had initially taken part. Participants were informed that once the questionnaire responses were inputted for data analysis it was not possible to identify individual questionnaire responses due to confidentiality and maintaining anonymity. The beliefs targeted were those identified in a previous study alongside direct measures suggested by Ajzen (1991).

Intervention messages

All beliefs included as positive or negative outcome beliefs were those identified in Study One of this thesis.

Experimental Group 1 video: Positive beliefs targeted.

- Introduction to the benefits of volunteering and the development of transferable skills.

- Positive beliefs identified within Study One were included as broadening knowledge and transferable skills, increasing career opportunities, enjoyable experiences, self-approval and approval and support of family and friends and dedicating time to take part in volunteering (See appendix 21).

Experimental Group 2 video: Positive and negative beliefs targeted.

- Introduction to the benefits of volunteering and the development of transferable skills.
- Positive beliefs identified within Study One were included as broadening knowledge and transferable skills, increasing career opportunities, enjoyable experiences, self-approval and approval and support of family and friends and dedicating time to take part in volunteering.
- Negative beliefs identified within Study One were included as finding the right opportunity for enjoyment, and time available to volunteer was targeted with solutions to overcome these barriers (See appendix 22).

Control Group 3 video: Course information

- Generic information regarding volunteering opportunities at the University of Sunderland, the video was informative without an emphasis on targeting either positive or negative beliefs (See Appendix 23).

Measures

Participants were asked to complete an online self-report questionnaire at two points in time, two weeks apart. On the second occasion of completing the online self-report questionnaire the participants were randomly assigned to view one of the three videos (experimental group one video: Positive beliefs targeted; experimental group two: Positive and negative beliefs targeted and control group three: Course information). The target behaviour was students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities and framed in terms of target, action, time, and context, as stipulated by Ajzen and Fishbein (1977). Six items measured student attitudes towards taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Measurement of the following dependent variables was made before and after watching a video in one of three conditions, intention, attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control and personal norm. To keep the questionnaire brief, one item was implemented to measure each construct except for perceived behavioural control. Two items to measure perceived behavioural control, one item targeting self-efficacy and one item targeting controllability. Two items measuring perceived behavioural control; 'I am confident to take part...' and "The decision to take part..."

Behavioural intention was measured with the following statement, "I intend to...". Attitude was measured with one item, "It is beneficial to take part...". Subjective norm item: "People who are important to me...". Personal norm item, "I will feel a sense of approval...". All utilised a 7-point likert scale of 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (7).

6.2.5 Methods of Data Analysis

Participant responses were stored on a personal hard drive and analysed using Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS, version 28). Alpha levels were set at .05 in order to give a reasonable balance between the possibility of type one and type two errors. Descriptive analysis for all measures is presented as means and standard deviations. A one way between groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to establish whether differences existed between participants allocated to positive targeted beliefs group, positive and negative targeted beliefs, or the control group.

Preliminary Multivariate Assumption Analysis

Prior to the main study analysis, preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, independence of residuals and multicollinearity. Measurement, reliability, correlations of covariates, linearity and homogeneity of regression slopes were also included in the preliminary assumption tests. Coisnon et al (2021) argues that when Gaussianity is rejected and the distributed is identified as non-Gaussian then the same statistical method can be employed regardless of the specific distribution of the data. For the purpose of this study parametric measures were conducted.

Main Study Between Groups Analysis

A one-way between groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to examine the effect of message content on five dependent variables: intention, attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control and personal norm in the context of each behavioural intention. The independent variable for each behavioural component was the type of outcome beliefs presented during the video and had three focused target areas: positive outcome beliefs, both positive and negative outcome beliefs, and the control group. The one-way ANCOVA was chosen as the research method of analysis because it allows for one independent, categorical variable with two or more conditions, one dependent continuous variable, and one or more covariate. It was thereby the most appropriate method of analysis to apply in accordance with the aims of this study. This technique is recommended when evaluating the impact of an intervention or experimental manipulation while controlling pre-test scores (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2018).

6.3 Results (Study Three)

A one way between groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to compare the effectiveness of three different interventions designed to improve students' attitudes towards the intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The independent variables were the type of intervention condition (positive beliefs, positive and negative beliefs or no beliefs referred to as the control condition), and the dependent variables were intention, attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control and personal norm scores measured post intervention. Participant scores on the pre intervention measurement were used as the covariate in this analysis.

Table 4.1 Unadjusted Mean and Standard Deviations of each intervention condition (positive beliefs, positive and negative beliefs and control condition), pre and post intervention. Adjusted Mean and Standard Error of each intervention condition (positive beliefs, positive and negative beliefs and control condition) post intervention.

	Group	N	(Pre) intervention		(Post) intervention		Adjusted (Post) intervention	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	Std. Error
Behavioral Intention	Positive beliefs	22	5.136	1.612	4.955	1.527	4.812 ^a	.235
	Positive and negative	22	4.818	1.651	5.455	1.299	5.478 ^a	.234
	Control	22	4.636	1.677	5.182	1.332	5.301 ^a	.235
<i>a. Covariate appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: behavioural intention (Pre) = 4.864</i>								
Attitude	Positive	22	5.591	1.532	5.636	1.093	5.93 ^a	.194
	Positive and negative	22	5.227	1.541	6.046	.899	6.118 ^a	.194
	Control	22	5.546	1.471	5.773	1.066	5.744 ^a	.194
<i>a. Covariate appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: attitude (Pre) = 5.455</i>								
Subjective Norm	Positive	22	4.955	1.430	4.455	1.262	4.386 ^a	.216
	Positive and Negative	22	4.864	1.424	5.364*	1.136	5.332 ^a	.215
	Control	22	4.546	1.438	4.682	1.086	4.782 ^a	.216
<i>a. Covariate appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: subjective norm (Pre) = 4.439</i>								
Perceived Behavioral Control	Positive	22	4.432	1.374	4.705	.854	4.707 ^a	.176
	Positive and Negative	22	4.296	1.098	4.773	.973	4.818 ^a	.176
	Control	22	4.591	1.141	4.568	.877	4.520 ^a	.176
<i>a. Covariate appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Perceived behavioural control (Pre) =</i>								
Personal Norm	Positive	22	4.955	1.647	5.136	1.082	5.161 ^a	.208
	Positive and negative	22	5.182	1.468	5.773	1.066	5.735 ^a	.208
	Control	22	5.000	.926	5.182	.958	5.194 ^a	.207
<i>a. Covariate appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: personal norm (Pre) = 5.046</i>								

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure that there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variances, homogeneity of regression slopes, and reliable measurement of the covariate. After adjusting for pre intervention scores as a covariate, post intervention subject norm was found to significantly differ between the three intervention groups, $F(2, 62) = 4.874$, $p = 0.011$, partial eta squared = 0.136. The covariate pre intervention subjective norm was significantly related to the post intervention subjective norm scores, ($p < 0.001$, partial eta squared 0.259). There was a significant difference between targeting positive beliefs (4.455 ± 1.262) and positive and negative beliefs for subjective norms (5.364 ± 1.136 ; $p = 0.003$). Positive beliefs for subjective norms scoring 4.455 ± 1.262 in comparison to targeting positive and negative beliefs for subjective norm 5.364 ± 1.136 .

After adjusting for pre intervention scores, there were no significant differences between the three intervention groups on post intervention scores for behavioral intention, $F(2, 62) = 2.145$, $p = 0.126$, partial eta squared = 0.065. There was a large relationship between pre intervention and post intervention behavioral intention scores, as indicated by a partial eta squared value of 0.384. Attitude, $F(2, 62) = 1.929$, $p = 0.154$, partial eta squared 0.059. There was a small relationship between pre intervention and post intervention attitude scores, as indicated by a partial eta squared value of 0.224. Perceived behavioral control $F(2, 62) = 0.726$, $p = 0.488$, partial eta squared 0.023. There was a small relationship between pre intervention and post intervention perceived behavioral control scores, as indicated by a partial eta squared value of 0.179. Personal norm, $F(2, 62) = 2.403$, $p = 0.099$, partial eta squared =

0.072. There was a small relationship between pre intervention and post intervention personal norm scores, as indicated by a partial eta squared value of 0.134.

6.4 Discussion (Study Three)

The purpose of the study was to examine the effectiveness of an intervention to improve student attitudes towards taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The results of this study indicated that subjective norm was the only dependent variable found to significantly differ between the three intervention groups. There was a significant difference when targeting positive and negative beliefs in comparison to targeting only positive beliefs for subjective norm. However, neither differed from the control condition. There were no significant differences between the three intervention groups on post intervention scores for behavioural intention, attitude, perceived behavioural control and personal norm.

The videos used in the present study were viewed by participants on one single occasion and the videos were limited between 4.43 minutes and 6.16 minutes. By having only one video for each condition, this allowed an opportunity to test if a brief intervention would be effective. A brief approach may be of interest to educationalists who have limited time to cover necessary content within their curriculum. However, a plausible reason for the lack of effects in the current study maybe that the participants only viewed the messages on one single occasion. Brandes et al (2019) implies that a more intensive use of targeting and communicating across multiple exposures can lead to greater results. This could be incorporated across a programme of study and integrated within a curriculum throughout the year, however this would hold disadvantages for educationalists with time constraints.

Theoretical implications

No significant differences were found between the three intervention groups for behavioural intention, attitude, perceived behavioural control or personal norm. After adjusting for pre intervention scores as a covariate, post intervention only subjective norm was found to significantly differ between the three-intervention group. There was a significant difference between targeting positive beliefs and positive and negative beliefs, revealing positive and negative beliefs to be more impactful. However, neither differed from the control condition and the results still suggest further exploration is needed into the strength of targeting positive and negative beliefs.

Hyde and Knowles (2013) support the importance of social influence in playing a significant role in encouraging university students to volunteer. Hu et al (2023) highlight that by enhancing social support and recognition of engagement in volunteering and extracurricular activities students can foster their sense of responsibility and belonging. Hu et al (2023) specifically found that engaging parents and relatives to ensure the family environment supports and encourages volunteer participation can positively impact students' willingness to engage. Also, peer influences exert pressure on students to volunteer. This provides insight into the importance strong bonds among students and peer led initiatives within educational institutes require and should encourage further engagement among students.

Overall, social influence plays an important part in forming students' attitudes, motivations, and intention towards taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. By creating supportive social environments, promoting positive social norms, and highlighting the benefits of volunteering within social networks, universities

could effectively raise students' intention to engage. The results of this study suggested the intervention did not improve student attitudes towards taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. This is discussed further in the strengths, limitations and recommendations for further research.

6.4.1 Strengths, Limitations, and Recommendations for Further Research

Overall initial responses from participants resulted in promising return rates of 98 responses. However, 32 respondents were excluded from analysis as they did not complete both pre and post measures. Normal distribution was not apparent when examining the data prior to analysis, this can be problematic because the assumptions of the test may not be met. However, Tabachnick and Fidell (2018) reinforces and supports the use of parametric measures and states that a sample size of 30 or above that results in violations of assumptions should not cause major issues. It is also a common occurrence for scales and measures that fall within social sciences to report scores of a skewed nature, either positively or negatively (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2018). This is not an indication of a problem with the scale, this is a representation of the nature of the construct that is being examined. The scales were measuring beliefs and therefore would expect distribution to be skewed for pre and post test results. Coisnon et al (2021) states that when a range of distribution shapes are observed within the data then a statistical strategy is required. By adjusting the statistical method to the distribution of data then this increases the accuracy and precision of results. No outliers were therefore removed in Study Three due to mean and trimmed mean values displaying little variation of scores, these cases were retained in the data file. It is, however, plausible that the limited number of responses has negatively impacted

the overall outcomes. Coisnon et al (2021) further argues that graphical assessments of frequency distribution histograms should be observed to assess specific data distribution. The accuracy of this approach is questionable when applied to small samples, however what constitutes as a small sample is unclear across studies.

A strength of the study was the progressive design of Study Three questionnaire. The message content of the intervention videos was based on empirical evidence that was relevant to the sample population of students and the target behaviour in Study One and Study Two of this thesis. Only one item was used to measure each construct within the questionnaire for Study Three. Each item had been used in Study Two and was demonstrated to predict intention for the behaviour of interest. This appropriately reduced the time taken to complete the questionnaire, maintaining and ensuring a degree of confidence in the validity and reliability of each construct item. Studies that employ measures with one item for each construct can be perceived as a limitation given the TPB is a complex theoretical model that requires comprehensive measurement of the constructs to be valid and reliable. It can be argued that one instance of measurement may not provide accurate assessment of all components of the construct. However, prior steps were taken within Study Two of this thesis that evidenced the robust steps taken to ensure good internal consistency of these measures and, therefore, the use of single items for each construct is not considered a limitation within Study Three.

The most interesting and unexpected finding is that attitude did not differ between the three videos which targeted either positive outcome beliefs, positive and negative outcome beliefs or no outcome beliefs. There is a strong body of literature to indicate

that targeting positive beliefs over negative beliefs can increase behavioural intentions (Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014; Hayton, 2016; Hu et al, 2023). However, this does not mean that targeting negative beliefs are ineffective. Hayton (2016) argues targeting positive beliefs does tend to enhance motivation and engagement amongst students but targeting negative beliefs may also lead to participation although less effective, particularly in fostering long term commitment and satisfaction. Williamson et al (2018) further argues that targeting positive beliefs of the benefits to volunteering can be more effective in motivating students to participate than focusing on negative beliefs. However, Williamson et al (2018) does not dismiss the importance of also targeting negative motives and obligations, but simply states that negative motives are less likely to sustain long term engagement. Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014) further acknowledge that targeting negative beliefs can drive individuals to volunteer, but their commitment may be less robust compared to those motivated by positive beliefs. It is plausible that attitude did not differ between the three video groups because targeting positive or positive and negative beliefs both hold merit in raising intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering activities. With negative beliefs potentially having greater effect on long term participation. It must be acknowledged that this thesis examines intention to take part and not actual behaviour.

Findings highlighted that subjective norm displayed significant differences between the three intervention groups, the reliability of this finding would be supported with a larger sample. It is plausible that participants may not have been interested in taking part in the study if they were already engaged with experiences aligned closely to their existing career pathways. Koutrou and Kohe (2021a) discuss how that satisfaction of volunteers is achieved when an individuals' expectations are appropriately matched

with the activities. Although this may refer to the act of volunteering after having completed the act, if students fail to see the transferability of the study in relation to their own personal goals and aspirations then this could have negatively impacted the return rate or initial engagement with the study.

Justifications for the development of an intervention that targeted attitude was derived from empirical evidenced revealed in Study One and two of this thesis. A further strength to the design was the inclusion of all TPB constructs as measures which is supported by literature (Ajzen, 2015; Conner, 2014; Montanaro, Kershaw and Bryan, 2018). Ajzen (2015) states that it is possible for one or two of the TPB theoretical constructs to be irrelevant and make no significant contribution to the prediction of intention. It is an assumption of TPB that the different components to predict intention will display varying power depending on the behaviour and population being examined (Conner, 2014). This result would not mean that the evidence is inconsistent with a reasoned action approach (Ajzen, 2015). A strength of this study was the participant sample population of sport students who represented a field of study whereby gaining practical experiences alongside academic studies should be considered advantageous. The use of similar student populations across this thesis is a further strength in supporting the credibility of the findings. Montanaro, Kershaw and Bryan (2018) examined the use of interventions that attempted to influence the determinants of TPB using single constructs, some constructs, and all constructs. The results revealed the full application of all TPB constructs were best at changing intentions, suggesting that the constructs are working together to produce a change. Some studies have highlighted overlaps between the constructs. Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, (2013) revealed an overlap between subjective norm, perceived

behavioural control and personal norm. With perceived behavioural control affected by personal norm. Lee and Kim (2016) argue that self-efficacy leads to volunteering participation, demonstrating the need for individuals to be resilient to overcome barriers when performing volunteering behaviours. Self-efficacy is linked to confidence, a salient belief that was elicited in Study One of this thesis (Table 2.8). Lee and Kim (2016) discuss that many participating volunteers display evidence for improving self-confidence which is linked to self-efficacy. The study highlights the need to include both perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy in the role of predicting intention. This is reinforced by Ajzen (2002) who outlines that measures of perceived behavioural control should include both self-efficacy measures and controllability to ensure high internal consistency. Given the research that supports the use of all TPB constructs as measures. Perceived behavioural control was included as a TPB measure for Study Three of this thesis.

Clarity of the beliefs targeted within the videos could have influenced participants understanding of the content. The use of video design and editing was a new skill to the researcher, and it is questionable if a more robust technologically advanced video would have created a greater impact on outcomes. It should be noted however, that video quality was consistent between the three groups and is therefore not considered to be a confounding factor between the three conditions of the independent variable. The videos were designed using editing features and footage was taken from a range of existing videos via YouTube to promote and emphasise each condition. Ulker-Demirel and Ciftci (2020) highlight that messages presented directly from people rather than marketers are more likely to be believed. Even though this is specific to a consumer context it is questionable if the use of current students to convey the

messages within the videos would have had a greater impact on intention and permitted a greater effect in terms of relatability of similar experiences and shared goals and objectives. Yang et al (2021) discuss that persuasive messages and the demonstration of the desired behaviour are the necessary approach to changing attitudes. The use of peers or graduate students from the same programme of study may have helped arouse emotional affective components of attitude. Yang et al (2021) further argues that a change in attitude is achieved during the interactions of emotion, cognition and behaviour. It is also possible that the videos created for the use of this study may have impacted on only one aspect such as cognitions and not emotions or emotions and not cognitions. For future research further examination of the type of persuasive messages employed could be an area for exploration.

The use of online platforms to access the questionnaires and view the motivational videos using Qualtrics was a strength to the study and aided in ease of distribution. Data collection took place on campus during normal lecture hours which further permitted the presence of the researcher to support the viewing of content. Strategies to reduce social desirability were employed with participants receiving headsets to minimise distractions, the environment and surroundings were a familiar classroom setting. Steinmetz et al (2016) states that online interventions are more effective. The presentation of online resources did enable control over the speed of information which was communicated, allowed time to process the information and reduced any chances of reactive responses. With the data collection in a face-to-face environment, where support was available, this added further strength to the study design.

The length of time of each video could have been a contributing factor. At the time of this study, there appears to be no research that focuses specifically upon motivational videos to promote intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Similar studies such as Confectioner et al (2021); Salimi et al (2021); Özyemisci and Cankaya (2020) who have incorporated the use of videos to promote awareness or enhance motivation within areas of health-related behaviours. Have produced videos of average times lasting around 6 minutes. The three videos designed for each condition were kept to timings no shorter than 4.43 minutes, with the longest video lasting 6.16 minutes. This is reflective of similar studies by Özyemisci and Cankaya (2020). However, it is unclear if the videos used for this study verged on the lengthier time scales and negatively impacted engagement in the key messages targeted. For future research the replication of this study with multiple time scales would allow closer examination of the impact of video duration. Salimi et al (2021) produced short videos of one minute in duration and still resulted in positive significant findings. However, the context was within a health setting and the videos were designed to be instructional to raise awareness of the cornea transplants and the benefits. Given the purpose of the videos and the need to supply information, the short nature of the video is justified. Özyemisci and Cankaya (2020) delivered only one video of four minutes in duration having effective results to improve flossing behaviour however, the main goal was to be efficient with time to aid focus and concentration of the patients. The video utilised educational communication messages within the video, but the study fails to elaborate any detail with regards to further content or message type.

Study One revealed that participants held both affective and instrumental beliefs regarding the intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Hood et al (2021) discusses that affective messages were more greatly persuasive than cognitive messages when individuals had affectively based attitudes. Similarly, when cognitive messages were utilised on cognition-based individuals then a change of attitude was correlated, however to a lesser degree of significance. Even though Study Three targeted both affective and instrumental beliefs this would be an area of consideration for future studies to align the messages more prominently to be affective in persuasion.

It is also considered that respondents already held positive beliefs about the act of engaging in volunteering experiences, thereby meaning that the motivational videos would have shown little difference in changes to attitude concerning the target behaviour. Ajzen (2015) states that the nature of altering beliefs is only achievable with unmotivated individuals. If students who took part in Study Three questionnaires were already proactive in work-based placements and additional volunteer activities related to their programme, then arguably they are already engaged and motivated. For future studies including intervention designs it would be advantageous to determine if the participants were already taking part in additional extracurricular activities and volunteering aligned to their career objectives and programme of study. This can pose challenges given that there is not an accepted global or official definition of volunteerism (Diacon, 2014). In this study, volunteering was clearly defined and referred to as activities that are unpaid and scheduled outside and in addition to a timetabled programme of study. Not activities that are a mandatory requirement for a program of study such as placements. Wong (2019) states that if an injunctive norms

approach is adopted then the communicated messages need to be placed with a targeted population that holds high motivation to comply, or the communication will have little effect on changing intentions. The study does not reveal how to assess motivation to comply, or if the measure of motivation to comply is needed prior to main data analysis as part of the criterion for selection of participants or if this should take place during the main analysis of the data. In addition, if the targeted population are already engaged in a similar activity there is no evaluation of how this may impact the desired outcome. This is an area of consideration for future research moving forward.

A mixed methodology was employed across the thesis however, it may have been advantageous to include a qualitative reflective element within the data collection for Study Three. This may have allowed participants to provide insight into their perceptions of the beliefs targeted within the videos. It is also acknowledged that a qualitative element of the data collection for this study, such as open-ended questions may have contributed to the effectiveness of data collection and be viewed as less intimidating than an online questionnaire of short, closed questions given the possibility of online fatigue following the pandemic. It must be noted however, that by including a qualitative open ended question component would have resulted in a lengthier process of completing the questionnaires following the viewing of the online videos. Given the importance of response rates, further deterrents to participation such as the duration of completing the questionnaire are not favourable within the design and must be considered carefully for future research and studies. Confectioner et al (2021) highlights that although none of the interventions within their study found any significant findings to increase in help seeking behaviours related to mental health symptoms. The interventions and use of videos to raise awareness did lead to an

overall better attitude of the participants which was identified within the post-test questionnaire. The inclusion of this element within the data collection for the purpose of this study may have allowed greater understanding to the impact of the three videos' irrespective of the sample size. Yardley and Bishop (2015) discuss methods to implement both qualitative and quantitative practices during the sampling, data collection and analysis as opposed to the qualitative and quantitative data in a mixed methods approach being analysed separately. However, Yardley and Bishop (2015) state contradictory findings. Concluding that qualitative and quantitative research of a mixed method approach guided by a pragmatic epistemology would be best presented independently of each other. With the findings in different publications or formatting either qualitative or quantitative but not mixed. This is an area to be considered for future research and studies incorporating the intervention approach and mixed methodologies.

There are advantages to the use of online platforms and interventions, combined with an on-campus presence during data collection enables support to participants and ensures reliability and confidence in the viewing of content. The design of this study offers an insight into the advantages to educators and institutes in communicating topics to wider cohorts that may save valuable time. However, for the purpose of changing attitudes revision of the design of the video and the communication context of the targeted beliefs need to be revised for future research. Hood et al (2021) has indicated that affective beliefs hold greater positive outcomes when targeted, however it is unclear in the literature what the recommended time duration that beliefs need to be targeted for to produce positive changes. With a lack of research focusing on motivational videos as a tool to manipulate beliefs, research into the method of

communication and type of message communicated to target and change beliefs within an intervention requires further consideration.

6.5 Conclusion (Study Three)

Ajzen (2015) acknowledges that to alter intentions, and behaviour is not one of ease but when designing interventions, it is important to ascertain if the issue is a lack of motivation or failure to carry out existing intentions. Both of which require different types of intervention that need careful consideration and planning. The research presented in this study has allowed for greater understanding in future intervention designs. It should be considered that future interventions include a design that may enable the students to carry out the target behaviour given that the participants may have already held favourable intentions.

The findings of the study offer insight into improving student attitudes to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Based on the findings of this study, educational institutes, practitioners, employers, charitable organisations and volunteering sectors should consider the message type and duration when aiming to motivate initial engagement of volunteering activities. These recommendations offer guidance for universities seeking to increase student engagement in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Targeting the positive and negative beliefs may be of benefit to enhance student engagement. Online motivational videos further offer opportunity for efficient delivery of messages to a wider cohort with ease and time available. Subjective norms reveal to have importance when targeting positive and negative beliefs. Students who believe when engaging in employability enhancing

volunteering opportunities was supported and encouraged by people significant to them, were more inclined to express intentions to engage. By understanding and addressing these factors, organisations, policy makers and educational institutes can develop targeted strategies to promote and encourage volunteering among students by fostering a culture of support and encouragement amongst peers, staff and future employers.

Chapter Seven: General Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations.

7.1 General Discussion

The aim of this thesis was to identify the factors that motivate students to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities within higher education. To achieve this aim, the research presented within this thesis was theoretically underpinned by the TPB and further augmented with personal norm. This allowed greater understanding and explanation to predict students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Research into the motives and beliefs of students' intention to engage in the act of volunteering for the purpose of employability still requires further exploration. There is limited literature which focuses upon what factors will encourage that initial engagement and intention to carry out the target behaviour. Research has had greater emphasis on the overall benefits for students who volunteer and how to maintain the volunteering behaviour once engaged however, there is still a lack of theoretical underpinning to explain or predict their sustained volunteering and what drives students to the initial act of volunteering. Understanding the drivers for students could increase the overall quality of provision within institutes and enhance the student experiences assisting to achieve student outcomes and contributing to society by producing more employer readiness for our postgraduates.

It is important to define the act of volunteering, many studies discuss volunteering without a clear definition of the type of volunteering programme participants were

involved in. This creates further questions when generalising the findings and the boundaries for different types of volunteering programmes are ambiguous. A strength to this thesis and the studies within is the clear definitions of engagement and volunteering. This thesis specifically refers to the act of engagement as the behaviour of students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Furthermore, volunteering is referred to as activities that are unpaid and scheduled outside and in addition to a timetabled programme of study. Not activities that are a mandatory requirement for a program of study such as placements.

Skills based volunteering has become a growing concept largely adopted by organisations aiming to promote a company's responsibilities to society (Shantz and Dempsey-Brench, 2022). Traditionally employee volunteering would include activities such as city clean ups or time spent assisting local community centres. Skills based volunteering by employees aims to utilise an individual's job-related skills such as project management or accounting to develop new skills that can be brought back to the workplace. Shantz and Dempsey-Brench (2022) argue that skills-based volunteering blurs the line between what is company responsibility and social responsibility. Shantz and Dempsey-Brench (2022) further highlight that the perspectives of employees partaking in skills-based volunteering is conflicting. Employees who believe the company motives to encourage employees to volunteer are driven by enhancing company image are in fact less likely to be committed to engaging in the act. The beliefs are that employee involvement in volunteering is to benefit the company. If this is the belief of employees, it is questionable if students in an educational setting encouraged to take part in volunteering with a similar aim to enhance skills for future career goals and employment would take similar views to

those of corporate employees. It must be acknowledged that institutes gain from an engaged cohort of students to volunteer. Universities gain through improved relations with stakeholders, external partners, communities, and organisations. This is in addition to the advantages for the students in terms of skill development, character building and employability (Eden, 2014). Should students hold similar perspectives to employees in a corporate setting, then this could create further barriers for individuals to engage in the act of volunteering. By highlighting the personal and moral obligation to oneself in achieving career goals such as personal norms this may allow for further engagement of students in skills-based volunteering opportunities.

There is a large body of work to support the relationship between volunteering and altruism (Wise, Kohe and Koutrou, 2021; Yang 2017; Moore, Warta and Erichensen, 2014; Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah, 2014). With research referring to volunteering as driven from innate feelings of the welfare of others and is a behaviour driven from doing good at the cost of the benefactor. Study One of this thesis highlighted the most salient beliefs of undergraduate degree students to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. Prominent beliefs concerning the disadvantages in taking part in the target behaviour were the time given for what was perceived by the students as essentially unpaid work. A further expression of concern was the uncertainty that if after all the hours given to volunteer a position of employment was not the reward or guarantee. This aligns more greatly with the view of Nazilah, Rozmi and Fauziah (2014) that volunteering for students is largely centred in the egoistic factors and desires for self-improvement needs. Particularly when the act of volunteering is focused upon career development and enhancing employability related skills. Despite altruism being a popular concept across many sectors and disciplines,

it is questionable whether the notion of altruism truly exists. Literature suggests that affective beliefs are best targeted when attempting to change a negative belief to a positive (Hood et al, 2021). If a focus on feeling good about the target behaviour is the predominant persuasive message type and an aim to elicit altruism is applied as a tool to engage students and enhance intention. It is questionable if altruism then becomes a practice of promises of exchange of benefits to raise intention to engage students. Diacon (2014) discusses the notion of self-interest, claiming if an individual is in pursuit of self-gains, then this ties to selfishness and therefore altruism is unable to exist. Diacon (2104) further explains that economists exclude and deny the notion of altruism from daily life and humans are considered indirectly amoral. Further stating that economic theories are developed from two main views, the first being from rationality and self-interest with the second a recognition that motives and actions are driven by emotion and therefore altruistic. Diacon (2014) uses the example of volunteering within a charitable setting stating that many individuals in modern society do so because the act has become fashionable. By engaging in volunteering from a charitable perspective then arguably selfish gains have been made due to being viewed favourably by others as an individual who cares about the afflicted. Thereby achieving social rewards. This further highlights the need for emphasis to be placed on the obligation to oneself to develop key employability skills to achieve long term career goals. By directing attention to a student's own goals and desires of self-improvement this further opens possibilities for strategies to enhance engagement. With attention given to the benefits of volunteering in the context of self-interest, this strengthens the need for person norm as a TPB measure.

7.2 The sufficiency of the Theory of Planned Behaviour

There is an argument for greater use of grounded theory within education-based research. The use of grounded theory allows social processes, relationships to be identified alongside any consequences of the behaviour. With a goal of development and change to encourage opportunities amongst students to develop employability skills from rich experiences, this makes grounded theory a good match for educational research. With the incorporation of an additional construct personal norm to an existing theoretical model, this adds further strength to the ability to make wider generalisations and transferability to other groups of participants across educational practices. The methodological steps taken across the thesis, requirements for the data analysis to be systematic, comprehensive, and transparent have reinforced the credibility of the application of the TPB measure as a theoretical framework and the findings across the thesis.

Nonetheless, the TPB has its limitations with regards to its use. The theory is restrictive in that it can only appropriately examine one behaviour at any one time. Even though it is advantageous to explore targeted factors that impact one action in a particular context, it can also overlook the difficulties of wider issues. Cho (2019) highlights the TPB lacks the inclusion of the individual goals. It is arguable that situations of predicting intention to volunteer requires theoretical models that incorporate multiple goals. Ulker-Demirel and Ciftci (2020) argue that the TPB lacks elements of an individual's personal decision-making choices such as their desires that display a person's motivational state of mind and their past behaviour. For example, finance is

a variable that may restrict or influence a person's attitude and behaviour. This was highlighted as a concern by participants within the first study, but it is largely a wider issue that cannot be influenced by the educator other than ensuring volunteering experiences occur in a close proximity of the student's geographical location to ease travel costs. Motives and desires of the student to succeed and gain key employability skills will be driven solely by the individual irrespective of perceived financial issues. Therefore, the TPB can only establish behavioural intent as a compromise between predictors of attitude and behaviour. For this reason, financial costs as a barrier to taking part in industry specific volunteering opportunities were not targeted during the motivational videos within Study Three. It is uncertain what impact financial reasons had on individuals' intention to engage in the target behaviour however the theory is a behavioural theory centred on causal processes. Study One also identified the main barrier to engaging in the target behaviour was an issue of the time available due to other commitments and responsibilities. The amount of time available throughout an individual's day is often a perception that stems from what the individual identifies as a priority. This links to Dawson and Downward (2013) who argue that the decision to engage in volunteering is dependent on the free will and the decision-making choices of the individual. It is questionable how much of the decision-making process can be positively influenced by the educator and how much of the decision making is linked to wider issues. The theory overlooks additional potential factors such as unconscious motives and impulsive choices. Critics of the TPB who deny its usefulness when interpreting human behaviour argue the importance of consciousness as a cause and state that behaviour is driven by attitude and additional unconscious decisions and influences on behaviour (Ajzen, 2011). Yet the TPB does not stipulate that individuals behave rationally or are rational, but that individual's beliefs often aligned

in accordance with reality. Also, the TPB is not claiming to be completely objective in the case of behaviour, normative and control beliefs and does not disregard that these beliefs could be formed from any number of unconscious motives. What the theory does state is that attitudes, subject norms, and perceptions of control follow consistently from beliefs regardless how an individual's beliefs were formed, it is in this way that they then influence intentions and behaviour (Ajzen, 2015). Monroe, Dillon and Malle (2014) state that the meaning of free will is the ability to make choices that are connected to an individual's desires and free from constraints. Free will being associated with the pursuit of desired goals, choice making and resisting temptation and pressures from peers or others and the absence of free will identified as a behaviour in the presence of authority. Lin (2017) supports the focus upon free will and deliberate beliefs to raise engagement attitudes in volunteering. It is arguable that with greater emphasis on the personal obligation to self to achieve long term career goals then a more positive attitude towards taking part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities may be the contributing factor to motivate students to engage in opportunities. Study Two however takes account for the elements of the theory that may lack explanatory strength to predict behavioural intention with the inclusion of personal norm. It could also be considered if perceived behavioural control or self-efficacy items included independently would hold greater predictability for the target behaviour. Lee and Kim (2016) discuss perceived behavioural control considers external attributes such as time and income, all of which were expressed as concerns in Study One of this thesis. The removal of self-efficacy items may have resulted in greater predictive power of perceived behavioural control. However, literature has varied views on the inclusion of controllability and self-efficacy. Lee and Kim (2017) argue the validity of TPB is greater with self-efficacy measures over perceived

behavioural control. However, Ajzen (2002) argues the need for the inclusion of both behavioural control and self-efficacy in the role of predicting intentions. This is an area for consideration for future studies. For future studies further constructs related to personal obligation, personal characteristics or emotional constructs could be added to the original TPB to allow a more complete model for predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities.

The TPB is not the only model to examine behaviours and intentions, theories such as Social Learning Theory (SLT), Social cognitive theory (SCT), Health belief model (HBM) have also examined various constructs in addition to the TPB (Head and Noar, 2014). Wider studies have explored students' intentions and motives with the inclusion of theories and constructs such as self-efficacy (Griffiths, Dickinson and Day, 2021); Self-Determination Theory (Hayton, 2016); Functional Theory and Theory of Maslow's hierarchy of Needs (Nazilah, rozmi and Fauziah, 2014). However, the TPB is well acknowledged in its predictive power and has been widely used in the field of social psychology to predict and understand a variety of behaviours including volunteering (Hyde and Knowles, 2013; Hu et al, 2023). Overall, the TPB provides a comprehensive framework allows for flexibility to include further constructs, is supported empirically and has applicability to understand students volunteering decision making processes making it justified and reasoned for its application across this thesis. For future research, it is a consideration to incorporate different theories in explaining attitudes and behaviours to modify them to volunteering within education with a focus on developing employability skills. This may allow for further distinctions in attitudes and behaviours, to form a framework that combines these models and offer greater insight into motives of students to engage. The integrated behavioural model (IBM) is

considered a more recent model from a reasoned action approach with promising utility. However, at the time of commencing this thesis the IBM was not as widely researched or employed extensively by researchers as the TRA and TPB. The inclusion of other theories maybe a consideration for future exploration.

A further theoretical consideration is the use of video-based messages in the application of the TPB framework and measures. While the findings for Study Three only revealed significant differences for subjective norms, the study did provide greater insight for the application of TPB measures within interventions. Future studies should carefully consider the content of the messages type. The use of video messages as a tool to increase engagement or change behaviour across a range of contexts is limited in literature. The literature that is available is further scarce in terms of applying a theoretical underpinning. However, the studies that have been conducted are promising in terms of the potential to be developed for future intervention studies. The use of online videos for health and risk contexts have revealed positive findings with increases to participation in breast cancer risk reduction practices or cornea donation (Pressgrove, McKeever and Collins, 2021; Salimi et al, 2021). The type of message that evidences increased intention or behaviour change is varied across the studies depending on the context. Findings are mixed from evidence across studies promoting affective persuasive messages over and above informational, instructional, or educational messages (Hood et al, 2021). Pressgrove, McKeever and Collins (2021) found that fear and humour message strategies in non-profit advocacy style videos were strong predictors for two TPB constructs, attitude and social norms. This is similar to the findings of Study Two of this thesis, and whilst Pressgrove, McKeever and Collins (2021) acknowledge the findings are not fully aligned to the TPB

sufficiency assumption the role of TPB measures as predictors were found to be highly valuable as proximal antecedents to behavioural intentions. The sufficiency of TPB as a theoretical framework to measure and predict students' intention to engage in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities has revealed valuable insights. Further work is needed to explore perceived behaviour control and its contribution to predictive power with consideration to the controllability and self-efficacy measures.

7.3 Methodological Strengths and Limitations

A clear strength of the thesis is the methodological application throughout the three preceding studies. Yuriev et al (2020) highlights that out of 86% of studies examined in a systematic review utilising the TPB these studies had overlooked the indirect measurements. Failure to explore these factors that impact behaviour, results in a weaker utility of the TPB and identification of the beliefs that should be targeted during behaviour interventions. Study One of this thesis applied careful consideration in eliciting the salient beliefs of students to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. When utilising the model of TPB, the constructs are regarded as internal and therefore psychological apart from that of behaviour. This allowed for the predictor variables to be measured both directly and indirectly. Study One elicited the most salient beliefs from a series of nine questions targeting and eliciting indirect beliefs. Study Two combined both direct and indirect measurement approaches, and by doing so considered the varying assumptions of each underlying beliefs about students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Thereby building upon the strengths of the methodological processes of the thesis. Study Two further included robustness of internal consistency measure of direct beliefs revealing

very good to satisfactory internal consistency across the constructs and items. An individual is capable of holding both negative and positive beliefs concerning the same behaviour, therefore it is crucial not to remove any beliefs displaying lower correlations and to use a test re-test reliability for this purpose (Francis et al, 2004). Due to the good internal consistency within Study Two and overall positive findings this justified the use of one direct measure for each construct within Study Three. Study Three findings reported that only subjective norm was found to significantly differ between three intervention groups with targeting of both positive and negative beliefs in a one way between groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Study Three measured the impact of three types of persuasive messages following an experimental design aimed to examine students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. There is limited literature that employs an experimental design of the TPB. Sniehotta, Presseau and Araújo-Soares (2014) argue that studies that have conducted interventions applying the TPB have not supported the theory's assumption. Sniehotta, Presseau and Araújo-Soares (2014) further dispute that out of 24 studies utilising the TPB with intervention studies, insufficient evidence was found to draw conclusions on the usefulness of the theory. Though some of the studies may have resulted in attitudinal changes following interventions, this did not affect intention or behaviour. It must be noted that out of the 24 studies, not all were interventions. Of the 24 studies reviewed, only four were found to be compatible with the TPB further questioning the reliability of the critics (Steinmetz et al, 2016). It must also be acknowledged that the theory is not a theory of behaviour change but in fact aimed to predict and explain intentions in behaviour. Critics argue the theory is difficult to use to design interventions to change attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control and does not equate for changing beliefs. Yet the theory does

provide a framework that aids in the design of intervention studies for behaviour change. The theory has capabilities to differentiate between motivating individuals to perform a behaviour and assisting those with positive intentions to follow through on their actions. Ajzen (2015) argues that the theory was not devised to provide a strategy or direction to produce changes in beliefs, but it is a framework that allows appropriate methodologies to target and identify beliefs requiring modification to execute intention.

Yuriev et al (2020) argues targeting specific populations may be a limitation of the theory and cause inadequate generalisations. In Study One of this thesis the target population of undergraduate degree students from sports coaching, exercise health and fitness backgrounds were representative of all undergraduate degree students studying a degree in the first year of their degree programme irrespective of the subject being studied. The students were all interviewed within a two-week window during the first semester of the programme for Study One. Study Two further built upon the findings of Study One to design and implement a carefully constructed questionnaire from the beliefs elicited in Study One alongside direct measures suggested by Ajzen (1991) of this thesis. The validity of the TPB in predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities was positive for attitude, subjective norm and further strengthened with the extension of personal norm as a construct. Perceived behavioural control did not add to the predictive power. A strength to Study Two was the response rate of 150 participants (N=150). With personal norm contributing to additional 6% of direct predictors and 11% of indirect predictors. Participants from Study Two were a convenience sample from one University and three further education colleges in the UK. Participants studying at a further education college were studying on a pathway to achieve an undergraduate

degree in partnership with the same university. This thesis did not specifically focus on either vocational or non-vocational courses but on students who would be expected to have self-interest to develop and enhance their employability prospects with voluntary work throughout this thesis. The participants within this study were studying pathways within sport and fitness or public services whereby the engagement in volunteering within industry specific sectors is expected. Of the 150 participants within Study Two, 26 were policing students. At the time of this study policing students and sports students were all from the same faculty within one further educational institute and in partnership with the same university. Policing students were included within the sample given their programme holds similarities with regards to the importance of practical industry experience. Činčalová and Černá (2021) found that students from helping professions were generally more engaged in volunteering, this supports the reasoning behind including policing students within the sample population given that policing and sports coaching programmes can both be considered for their similarities as helping professions and the need to gain practical experience. This is considered a further strength to the study findings and not a deviation from the characteristics of the sample populations utilised throughout this thesis. This adds to the reliability and validity of the representative sample population of participants and the study outcome findings. Additionally, Study Three participants were from one university based in the northeast of England. Participants in Study Three were all studying across sport pathways of their undergraduate degree making the sample populations consistent across the three studies. Study Three included a sample population of 66 participants, the study did reveal some significant outcomes however it must be considered that a larger scale research intervention may have had greater significant findings.

A further strength to the methodological approach of the thesis was the use of mixed methods across the three studies. The use of a mixed methods approach has allowed for a broader and full range of questions to be answered by enabling insight and understanding that may have been overlooked if a singular method had of been employed. Bishop (2015) states that merely combining qualitative and quantitative approaches without a full comprehension of the epistemological understandings negatively impacts the design, conduction, and evaluation of research. It is of greater importance to maintain and acknowledge the reliability of each component within the mixed methods research approaches. It is noted that studies utilising a mixed methods approach are often published separately from either a qualitative or quantitative approach and not as a complete account. What is more, training in mixed methods approaches appears to be conducted as separate methodologies further emphasising that publications of mixed methods research is limited, further research providing a full account within publications would be advantageous moving forward. The thesis composed of three proceeding studies has acknowledged the epistemological differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches and utilised each approach with shared and progressive aims to collaborated findings for a complete and holistic analysis of students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Thereby adding strength to the validity of the findings and outcomes.

Alternatively, it may be viewed that the qualitative component of Study One, which was fundamental and crucial in the development of items for the TPB constructs within Study Two and Study Three. Could potentially be viewed as limiting with regards to the insights and perspectives of the participants. Whilst the theoretical framework of

the TPB used to construct the interview schedule with questions that elicit most salient beliefs for attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, it is questionable if beliefs could have been elicited for wider issues beyond these existing constructs that the participant may have viewed as important and thereby were not considered.

7.4 Recommendations for Intervention and Promotion of employability enhancing volunteering

The present findings have implications for interventions aimed at increasing students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. The following discussion focuses on recommendations for promotion and behaviour change intervention specific to employability enhancing volunteering.

Attitude

Study One of this thesis identified participants beliefs concerning the engagement of employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. Study Two revealed that attitude was the second most significant predictor of intention. The TPB argues that attitude is the direct predictor of intention behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Research has supported the link between attitude and intention behaviour (Lee and Kim, 2017). The findings of Study Two statistically supports attitude as a strong predictor of students' intention to take in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Therefore, if an individual has a greater positive attitude, then they will have higher intention to engage the specific behaviour.

The results of this thesis imply that attitude change would be an effective target for motivational strategies to engage students in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities. Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) state that a single act is predictable from the attitude towards that act when correlation is high between intention and behaviour. With careful consideration of attitudinal predictors and behavioural criteria an individual's actions can be linked to attitudes. The target behaviour for this thesis was carefully framed in terms of target, action, time, and context, as stipulated by Ajzen and Fishbein (1977). However, Ajzen and Fishbein also stipulates that specific acts may represent a more generalised class of behaviours. This reinforces the notion that future studies should consider opportunity for the students to carry out the target behaviour and potentially over a period of time such as the duration of the academic programme to promote and grow positive attitudes for the behaviour of student volunteering. Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) discuss that with regards to attitude, personality traits have found little validity for the prediction of specific behaviours (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1977). However, Ajzen (2011) though not specifically referring to traits, does highlight the importance of personal factors for individuals and how it is these personal factors that influence beliefs and in turn influence intentions and behaviour indirectly.

Positive emotions have been reported to increase engagement with an individual's surroundings and encourage proactive behaviours, this can further result in a positive effect on intention (Fenitra et al, 2021). Emotion is associated with an individual's evaluation of a behaviour and a higher positive emotion will improve attitude (Fenitra et al, 2021). Early promotion of previous students' past experiences of engaging in

student volunteering to enhance employability should be shared to encourage positive emotions where these experiences have resulted in enjoyable outcomes. This would support and align with literature that states persuasive affective messages are more effective for changing negative beliefs to positives (Hood et al, 2021). Furthermore, the use of past students to share experiences and promote positive emotions will be more impactful in terms of message belief (Ulker-Demirel and Ciftci, 2020).

Social Influence

The normative component of the TPB has proved challenging to target as a construct. Study One elicited limited beliefs concerning significant others who would oppose the target behaviour. A strength of the study was the precise identification of who significant others were and this information strengthened the reliability and validity further for Study Two. The most strongly significant subjective norms for approval of the target behaviour revealed family, friends and teacher/lecturer with participants declaring nobody would disapprove as the most frequently cited. Employer was the second most cited as the significant other to disapprove of the target behaviour. This reflected the barriers of time and other commitments to engaging in the target behaviour due to employers placing demands on students for flexibility of their time to work additional shifts at short notice. There is a wide body of literature that accepts the TPB for the prediction of behaviour intentions (Steinmetz et al, 2016; Pressgrove, McKeever and Collins, 2021), however some studies identify that the subjective norm component reveals limited impact on behavioural intentions (Pressgrove, McKeever and Collins, 2021; Wong, 2019). Study Three of this thesis found subjective norm significantly differed between the three intervention groups when targeting positive and

negative beliefs. The influence of subjective norms varies across studies, one explanation is that this component could be reflective of individual traits and the extent to which individuals care about others approval or disapproval, this could also vary based upon situational scenarios for the individual. If individuals within the target population hold high value concerning that others will disapprove of the behaviour, then they will be more greatly influenced by subjective norms than those who are less concerned what others think. The context of the study in terms of a health-related issues or environmental issues may also hold greater normative power than student volunteering given the importance of public compliance if the act is monitored or recorded and based on the need for social approval and acceptance. However, eliciting an individual's belief and honesty that the approval of others impacts their intentions and actions poses challenges given that not everyone will acknowledge the power that significant others may hold over their motives. There appears limited literature with a focus upon individual differences in need for social approval as a moderator of subjective norms. It is evident that social influences are a powerful tool to motivate individuals given that many seek the approval of significant others whether fully admitted by the individual or not (Williamson et al, 2018). It is important to identify which social groups and who significant others are to promote students to engage in volunteering with the aid of social pressures. It is a consideration for future research to examine the sources of social influence more closely given that intention differs in predictability. Subject norm components of the theory certainly hold value and should not be discarded, future studies could consider the expansion of this construct.

The TPB has advancements and strengths over and above the TRA (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013). Perceived behavioural control did not contribute

significantly to students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. However, many studies applying the TPB framework often reveal that one or two of the theories constructs do not make significant contributions to the prediction of intentions (Jellema et al, 2013; Pressgrove, McKeever and Collins, 2021). This can often be seen when using different populations of participants. This does not mean that the TPB framework is any less valid, it simply means that with this particular population of participants and target behaviour perceived behavioural control may not have been an important consideration in the formation of intentions.

The measure of perceived behavioural control can sometimes be found to be controversial. With interpretation sometimes given to the two control factors, the first being a representation of self-efficacy beliefs and the second being control beliefs. Ajzen (2002) discusses the term perceived behavioural control as often misleading, with the term sometimes interpreted as a belief that performance of the behaviour gives control over attainment of an outcome. Ajzen (2002) states that perceived behavioural control should be interpreted as a subjective degree of control over the performance of the behaviour itself.

Ajzen (2015) argues that any intervention created to motivate execution of a target behaviour will be unsuccessful if the participants already intend to carry out the behaviour. For Study Three of this thesis, it is unknown if the participants were already engaged in placement activities or currently volunteering aligned to their programme of study and may have therefore related this behaviour closely to the target behaviour. In this case an intervention permitting the participants to carry out intentions to increase their actual and perceived control may be a future consideration. It would

also be a consideration to evaluate the magnitude of any compulsory placements that may have already occurred or are about to for future sample populations where interventions studies are conducted utilising the TPB measures.

Additional Constructs

TPB has strong explanatory power, and a strength of the theory is its capabilities to do so with only few variables. However, TPB does not provide a full account of an individual's decision-making processes. The flexibility of the model to include additional variables is a further strength. Originally personal norm was considered as a normative belief in early developments of TRA (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013). Due to a lack of evidence to support personal norm, it was discarded from the theory but has since been found to be supported across studies (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Pallister and Foxall, 2013; White et al, 2015). Study Two of this thesis found personal norm accounted for an additional 6% of direct predictors and an additional 11% of indirect predictors. Even though Ajzen (2015) supports the addition of constructs to TPB, care must be taken in case new constructs inadvertently improve intention by overlapping with the original TPB measures (Newton et al, 2013). However, the addition of personal norm as an extended construct holds strong relevance when predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Educational institutes should consider placing greater ownership of accountability on students' for developing their own employability skills through volunteering opportunities. It is apparent that a sense of self approval or disapproval exists for students who intend to take part in the target behaviour and personal norm is significant in adding predictive power.

Some studies have attempted to strengthen the influence of norm on behavioural intention with the inclusion of descriptive or moral norms (Yang et al, 2021). Whereas others have considered replacing behavioural intention with behavioural willingness to act as a proximal antecedent to actual behaviour (Pressgrove, McKeever and Collins, 2021). Across studies many additions to various behaviour specific constructs have been demonstrated to improve the predictions of intentions, however these additions need to be appropriate to the target behaviour to explain additional variance. In some cases, these additions are viewed as alternative measures of existing constructs.

7.5 Future Directions

The present findings encourage several possible directions for future research. These are highlighted in the following discussion.

Future studies utilising the TPB as a framework for motivational interventions would be advantageous to consider general demographics of the students as participants. Future studies should look at gender proportions across the sample cohort. While gender was not a focus within this thesis it is an area for future research given the literature that supports the argument that females are more likely to engage in volunteering behaviours (Dawson and Downward, 2013; Moore, Warta and Erichsen 2014). Study Two of this thesis conflicts with these findings with 72% of the sample population as male participants with 28% as participation females. This is reflective of the nature of the programmes the sample cohort were taken from, such as sport coaching, exercise health and fitness and policing programmes that typically recruit

greater numbers of male students to females. This is not viewed as a limitation to the thesis because gender was not the focus however future studies should consider general demographics of students studying across various programmes and personal factors that may influence intention.

Guidance regarding the framing of a persuasive message, type and ideal duration is varied in the literature with nothing reported that specifically focused on the use of video to motivate students to volunteer with the purpose of developing career prospects. Future research into the use of video as a motivational tool for students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities is suggested. The use of a short motivational videos is a practical evidence based approach for enhancing engagement that would benefit all education programmes or volunteering organisations that include volunteering schemes or programmes. The use of video has advantages over and above the use of motivational interviews for time constraints and the reduced need for consultancy which appeals to institutes and organisations. Future studies should consider the influence video has upon engagement and the long-term impacts allowing students to carry out the behaviour. Further exploration regarding the message type is an area for future study and consideration.

7.6 Concluding remarks.

Once engaged, student motivations can shift from extrinsic factors such as enhancing an employability profile to intrinsic motivations such as enjoyment (Hayton, 2016). However, literature predominantly focuses on existing student volunteer motivation

and not factors that initially engage students to volunteer. This thesis provides insight into understanding students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Students pursuing higher education degrees in specific pathways such as sport would be expected to be more highly motivated to take part in industry specific volunteering. For reasons such as gaining practical experience in industry and valuing the importance of networking with professionals in a similar field. However, how to raise initial engagement for students has been less of a focus across literature. This thesis evidences the unique contribution that personal norm has in understanding students' intentions to engage in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Given the acknowledged benefits that taking part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities has on prospective employability from the represented sample of participants. The inclusion of personal norms was supported as it was found to be significant in predicting students' intentions to engage. Understanding personal norms can support educational institutes and organisations to tailor their messages and outreach efforts to effectively engage students in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. With greater understanding of the factors that influence intentions to take part, educators can create opportunities and programmes that align with those motivations, increasing the likelihood of engagement.

It should be acknowledged that part of the decision-making process regarding students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities is assigned to the free will of the student. Free will is debateable as a definitive term but implies that the student is completely free from constraint to go through various

mental processes in the decision making and choices which in turn influences intention. While factors such as a personal obligation to oneself and seeking self-approval of the behaviour to engage can be influenced to contribute to a positive outcome. Ultimately there is an element of decision making that is much more complex that impacts the final decision. Wider issues of social identification, demographics and perceptions of most important priorities and capable allocation of time to these priorities all impact the final outcome. Some of which cannot solely be targeted for the desired outcome of engagement in the target behaviour. Educators can however contribute by placing the correct emphasis on personal obligation in the form of personal norms and highlight the benefits of taking part in volunteering and enhancing skills for future employment across the course of academic studies. The social pressures of conforming to approved behaviour could be a powerful motivator if used effectively to promote the desired social networks for students to identify with.

Yet to develop an ethos and environment that promotes and encourages the engagement of volunteering to develop key employability skills of students. Then there must be an element that relies upon the independent choice of the student to prioritise the importance of gaining these experiences. The opportunities available for students to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities is also dependent on the good will of employers, stakeholders, and organisations availability of free time to engage and work alongside students and institutions. Where resources and funding are a factor to cater for students' participation in work-based volunteering this may cause further barriers to engagement. This can be seen most in sport specific setting of volunteering such as football where inequalities of experience and opportunity are noted across club and league level (Koutrou and Kohe, 2021b). Despite the

advantages of students engaging in volunteering to enhance employability prospects being apparent, it is still questionable and frustrating that greater investments are not placed upon rich employability enhancing volunteering opportunities embedded within the curriculum as a priority within higher education institutes. The potential to provide opportunities to students through volunteering is multitude. However, from a moral perspective, solely promoting volunteering through the promotion of feel-good factors regarding the employability advantages fails to identify the larger benefits to students such as learning beyond the safe space of the classroom. By engaging in the act of employability enhancing volunteering opportunities, students will not only increase their employability profile but become aware of wider issues such as social inequalities and analytical skills. Moreover, students will be able to develop knowledge which enables them to expand or challenge academia and higher education to provide these opportunities within the curriculum. Even though the issue of self-interest and personal gains are a driving motive for students to engage in the act of volunteering, it is also debateable whether these additional employability enhancing volunteering experiences should be rewarded in the form of modular accreditation. However, this then questions the notion of whether the activity is then an act of volunteering. This thesis offers insights into raising intentions of students to engage in employability enhancing volunteering activities. The targeting of personal norms offers unique contribution and is specifically useful for students studying a programme requiring industry expertise such as sport coaching. Personal norm was a significant predictor in Study Two however, personal norm was not the focus for the intervention in Study Three. The beliefs that underpin personal norm were not elicited in Study One of this thesis, therefore Study Three focused upon attitudes which was the second strongest predictor in the extended model for Study Two. Yet the intervention for Study Three

did not impact students' attitudes, it may be that future studies could explore personal norm further within targeted interventions.

The design of the thesis specifically looks at intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Therefore, it is difficult to say with certainty that students will act on their reported intentions. Future research may be advantageous from a longitudinal design to examine the link between intentions and following behaviours, this would enable a review of participants to examine if intentions had been executed. However, this conflicts with Sniehotta, Presseau and Arauko-Soares (2014) who state the TPB is considerably less predictive for longitudinal studies rather than cross-sectional. For the present thesis this is not viewed as a limitation given that the focus of interest across the studies was to explore the relationship between the TPB constructs, additional variable personal norm and intentions, not intentions and behaviours.

The findings of this thesis demonstrate the usefulness of the TPB measures in predicting students' intention to take part in employability enhancing volunteer opportunities within higher education. Centred on the determinants of the TPB it is recognised that the factors of attitude, subjective norm augmented with personal norm are important in the prediction of behavioural intention. Though perceived behavioural control did not show as significant, it does appear controversial in terms of its two aspects of controllability and or self-efficacy. Future studies should consider the predictive contribution of perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy in isolation in addition to combined measures. The addition of personal norm as an extended

construct to the original theory holds greater predictability of intention to engage in the act of employability enhancing volunteering opportunities. Students hold a moral obligation to oneself to take part, with further emphasis placed upon the student in terms of responsibility and accountability for career success person norm adds value to the utility and intention predictability of the target behaviour. Consequently, intervention strategies to increase intention of student volunteering in employability opportunities still requires further exploration to build upon the strengths of Study One and Study Two. Careful consideration is needed in terms of the quantity of response rates. Type of persuasive or motivational messages and personal characteristics of the sample population needs to be examined more closely. Identification of motivational levels of the participants to engage in the target behaviour and distinction from those who already hold favourable beliefs but have failed to carry out favourable intentions must be clearly recognised to develop the best intervention design. With an understanding of factors that impact and influence students' intentions to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities, future intervention programmes to encourage the behaviour can be evaluated and implemented for future studies. Efforts to promote engagement in these activities should be encouraged at the start of academic programmes and throughout the course of students' studies. These findings provide thought and highlight possible implications for the organisation of student employability enhancing volunteering. The type, duration, and purpose of volunteering whether this be from civic duty to build personal character or student employability to develop key skills and how to promote student engagement is still an area for future research.

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Appendix 1 – Database search strategy terms.

Search	Search Terms
Volunteering	(Student volunteering) OR volunteer*, (youth volunteering), (intention to volunteer), (volunteer motives) OR Motive*, (Volunteer beliefs), (volunteer barriers), (volunteering experiences), (extracurricular activities) OR ECA, assistant or charity worker.
Student	Students, Youth, Adult AND Young Adult, Adolescent, Undergrad OR Undergrad*, College student, Sport student, assistant, charity worker, employee, graduates, learners OR learn*, pupils, teenagers, adolescents.
Skill-based	(Skill) OR skill*, soft skill, transferable skill, (employability) OR employ*, career.
Motivation and attitude.	(Motivation) OR motive*, drive, beliefs, positive, negative, (Altruism) or altruistic, perspective, experience, self-interest or self-gain or benefit, attitude.
Social influence.	(Friends) OR peers, classmates, cohort, family, teacher OR education AND institute, employer. Moral OR Personal
Self-efficacy	Barrier*, facilitator, easy, difficult, increased participation, limits participation, confidence, self-belief.
Theory	(Theory) or theories, theoretical, framework, domain, construct.

Appendix 2 - Study One questions.

A study focusing upon the beliefs that higher education Sport and Exercise students have about taking part in employability enhancing volunteering hours within a two-week period is to be conducted. Please provide in detail your responses to each question which refers to volunteering. There are no right, or wrong answers and your honest responses and feedback is appreciated.

Please take a few minutes to list your thoughts about the following questions.

When higher education Sport and Exercise Students take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities outside of scheduled programme of study within a two-week period.

1. What do you believe are the advantages of taking part in industry related volunteering hours outside of your scheduled timetable within the next two-week period?

2. What do you believe are the disadvantages of taking part in industry related volunteering hours outside of your scheduled timetable within the next two-week period?

3. Is there anything else you associate with your own views about taking part in industry related volunteering hours outside of your scheduled timetable within the next two-week period?

4. Are there any individuals or groups who would approve of you taking part in industry related volunteering hours outside of your scheduled timetable within the next two-week period?

5. Are there any individual or groups who disapprove of you taking part in industry related volunteering hours outside of your scheduled timetable within the next two-week period?

6. Is there anything else you associate with other people's views about taking part in industry related volunteering hours outside of your scheduled timetable within the next two-week period?

7. What factors or circumstances would enable you to take part in industry related volunteering hours outside of your scheduled timetable within the next two-week period?

8. What factors or circumstances would make it difficult or impossible for you to take part in industry related volunteering hours outside of your scheduled timetable within the next two-week period?

9. Are there any other issues that come to mind when you think about taking part in industry related volunteering hours outside of your scheduled timetable within the next two-week period?

Appendix 3 – Study One Participant information sheet

Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within sport and exercise.

Purpose of the study

You are being asked to take part in a research study by Kelly Perry as part of her PhD to identify the outcome, normative and control beliefs that underpin motivation for higher education sport and exercise degree students to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within a two-week period outside scheduled programme of study teaching.

What is involved?

In this study, you will be asked to take part in a 15-minute interview where you will be asked to state your first three initial responses to a series of nine questions asked by the interviewer regarding your beliefs that motivate you to take part in volunteering. The interview will be recorded manually by the interviewer in addition to being audio recorded. All information provided will be confidential with anonymity maintained throughout the study. The interview will be conducted on campus within a private classroom. Participants might be approached to take part in the next stage of the project if they are happy to provide their telephone number or email address.

TIME COMMITMENT

The interview will be conducted once and take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

PARTICIPANTS' RIGHTS

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide to stop being a part of the research study without explanation. You have the right to ask that any data you have supplied to that point be withdrawn or destroyed until your feedback has been coded then anonymity prevents withdrawal from the study.

You have the right to omit or refuse to answer or respond to any question that is asked of you.

You have the right to have your questions about the procedures answered. If you have any questions as a result of reading this information sheet, you should ask the researcher before the study begins.

CONFIDENTIALITY/ANONYMITY

The data we collect does not contain any personal information about you except the contact details you provided to arrange an interview date and time, your age, gender and programme of study. No one will link the data you provided to the identifying information you supplied for contact details.

On completion of the study your data may be used for publications, presentations and conferences however anonymity will be upheld, and individual participants will not be identifiable from the research presented or published.

Kelly Perry will be glad to answer your questions about this study at any time or if you would like to find out about the final results of this study. You may contact her at bd61ak@student.sunderland.ac.uk

CONTACT DETAILS FOR DIRECTOR OF STUDIES

Appendix 4 – Study One informed consent form

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within sport and exercise.

PROJECT SUMMARY

By signing below, you are agreeing that: (1) you have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet, (2) questions about your participation in this study have been answered satisfactorily, (3) you are taking part in this research study voluntarily.

_____	_____	_____
Participant's Name (Printed)*	Participant Age	Participant Gender
_____	_____	
Participant's signature*	Date	
_____	_____	
Name of person obtaining consent (Printed)	Signature of person obtaining consent	

**Participants wishing to preserve some degree of anonymity may use their initials (from the British Psychological Society Guidelines for Minimal Standards of Ethical Approval in Psychological Research)*

Please provide contact details below of how you wish to be contacted to arrange an interview date and time.

Contact Telephone Number _____

Email _____

Please note that interviews will be audio recorded and you may be approached to take part in the next stage of the project if you are happy to provide your contact details.

Appendix 5 - Study One letter of approval for data collection.



Ref: MdM/sy

19 November 2015

To whom it may concern

Re: Kelly Perry – PhD Research

I hereby authorise Kelly Perry to collect relevant research data in order for her to complete her PhD qualification.

Yours faithfully

Michele DiMascio
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Appendix 6 - Approval letter for data collection.



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17th December 2015

Kelly Perry

Kelly Perry – PhD Research

Thanks you for your recent correspondence regarding your PhD studies.

I have spoken with my Head of Department (Dr Amanda West) and your supervisor (Dr Sandra Leyland) and am more than happy to enable access to the Department's undergraduate student body to collect relevant research data.

The key *provisos* are that the studies receive University of Sunderland ethical approval, and that students are given full information about the study and you receive informed consent from them.

On behalf of the Department I wish you every success with your studies and look forward to reading the outputs in due course.

Yours sincerely

Dr Ian Whyte
Team Leader
Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences

Appendix 7 – Study One ethical approval.



**RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
DECISION STATEMENT**

<p>Application Number: 277</p> <p>Project Title: Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within sport and exercise.</p> <p>Chief Investigator: Dr Sandra Leyland (DoS)</p> <p>Co workers: David Archer, Kelly Perry (PhD Student)</p> <p>Date: 10-02-2016</p>
--

YOUR RESEARCH PROJECT DECISION IS LISTED BELOW

<p>APPROVED WITH NO CONDITIONS: This means you may start the project immediately.</p>	
<p>PRE-CONDITIONS: This means you must complete the conditions listed below before you start the project. However, you DO NOT have to send any information back to the Committee. The Committee will assume completion of these conditions.</p> <p>Participant Information Sheet</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explicitly state that participation in this research is voluntary and the right to withdraw without giving a reason including withdrawal procedures. • Introduce Kelly Perry and state that this research is part of her PhD project. • Include contact details of Director of Studies • Include that participants might be approached to take part in the next stage of the project if they are happy to provide their telephone number or email address. • Include that interviews will be audio-recorded. • Include further detail of data handling, i.e., data (audio recordings/transcripts) storage and duration of retention. <p>Consent form</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide consent form on a separate sheet • Include statement about audio-recording of interview • Include statement about potential further contact at a later date and provide 	

space for phone number and/or email address.	
COMMITTEE-CONDITIONAL: This means you complete the conditions listed below and that you MUST send the information requested back to the Committee's officer Mrs. Michelle Marshall at ethics.review@sunderland.ac.uk . Once the committee has received this information, it will contact you again about its decision. You must await the Committee's final decision, before you start the project.	
REJECTION: This means the committee does not wish this research to commence. You should not start this research. The Research Ethics Committee will explain why it has reached this view. Please contact the Committee Chair if you have any questions.	
RECOMMENDATIONS: These are simply points of advice from the committee. They are OPTIONAL . You do not have to undertake them or contact the committee about them.	

Signed by the Committee Chair:

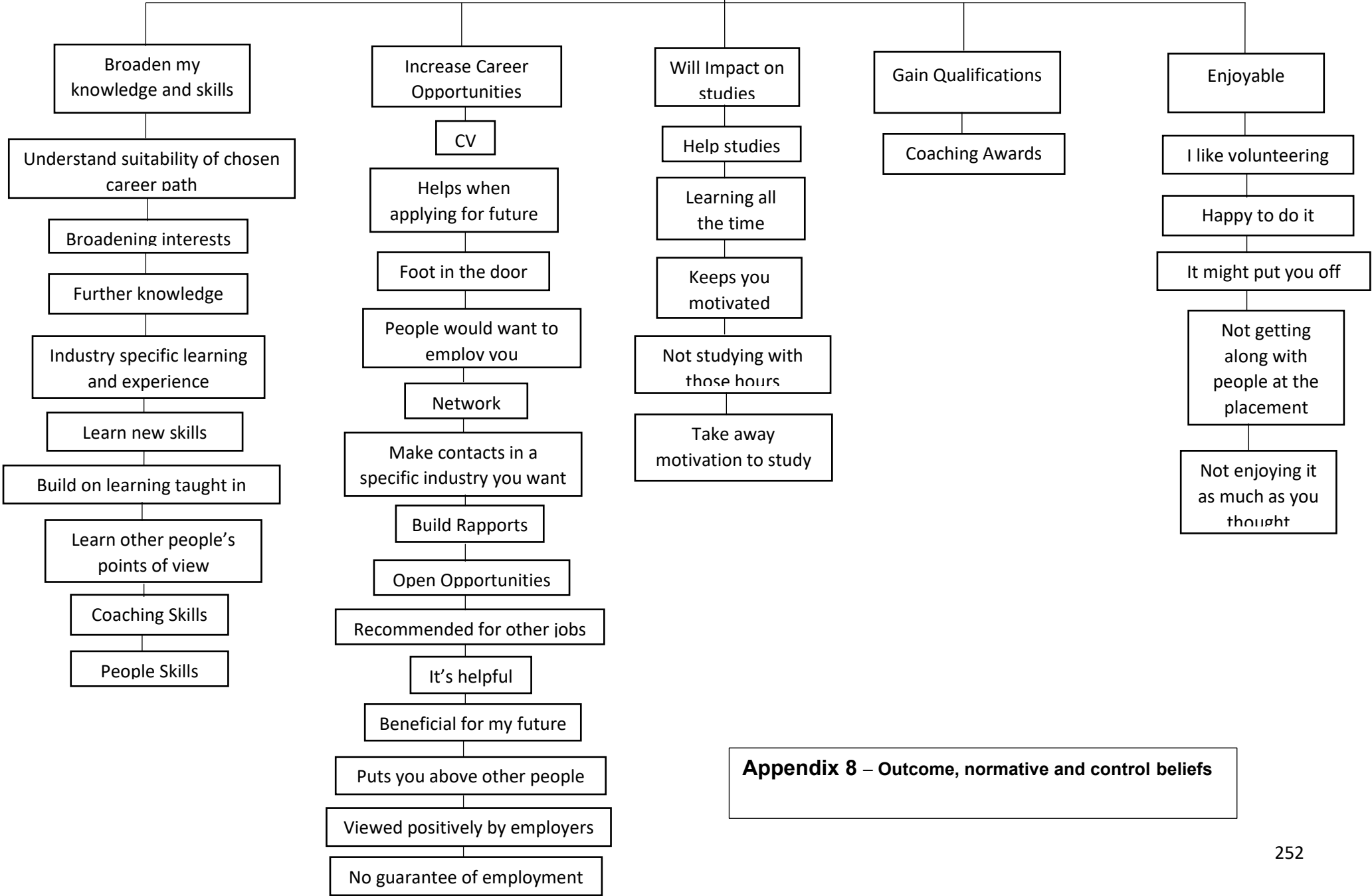


Dr Etta Evans

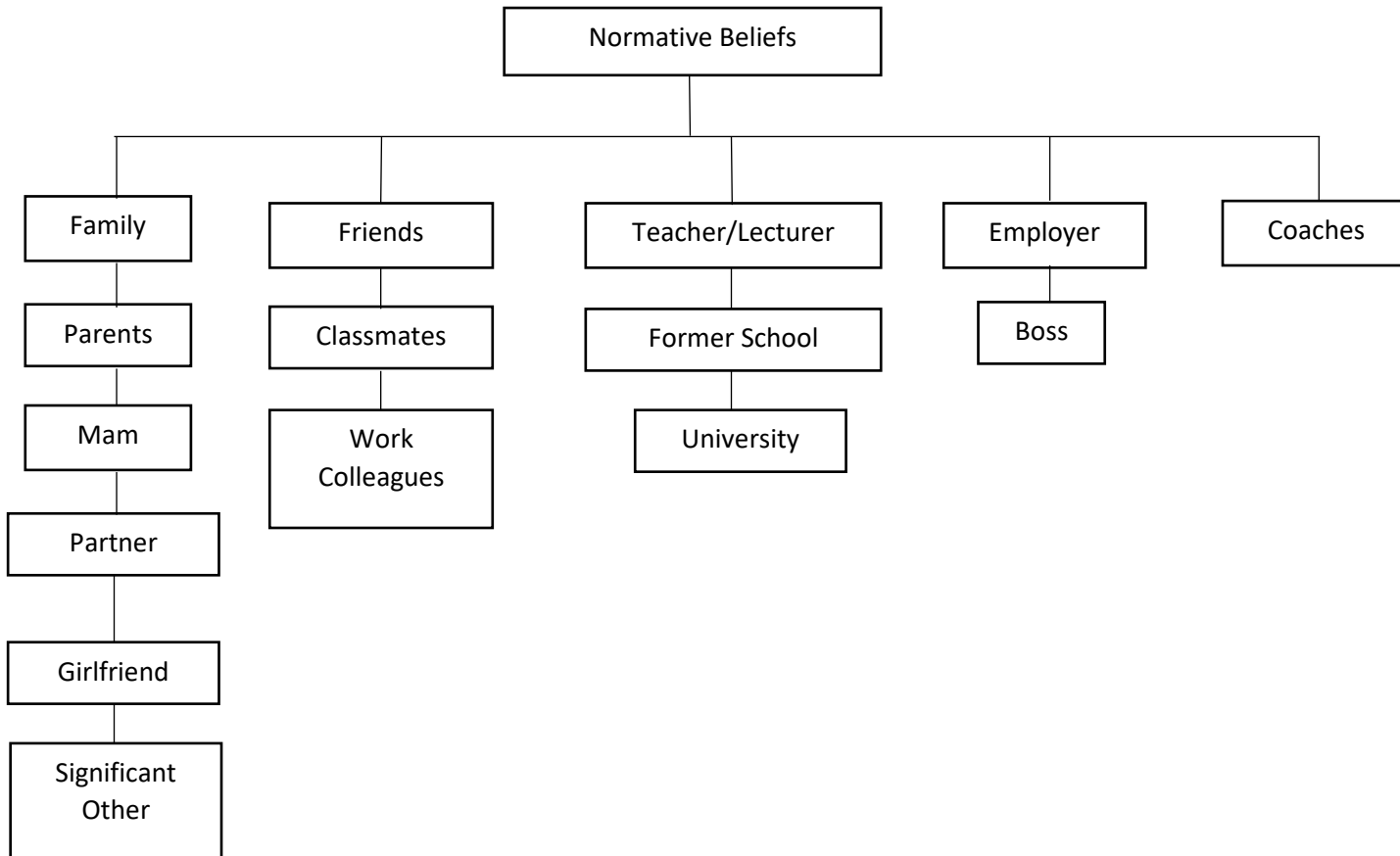
NOTE:

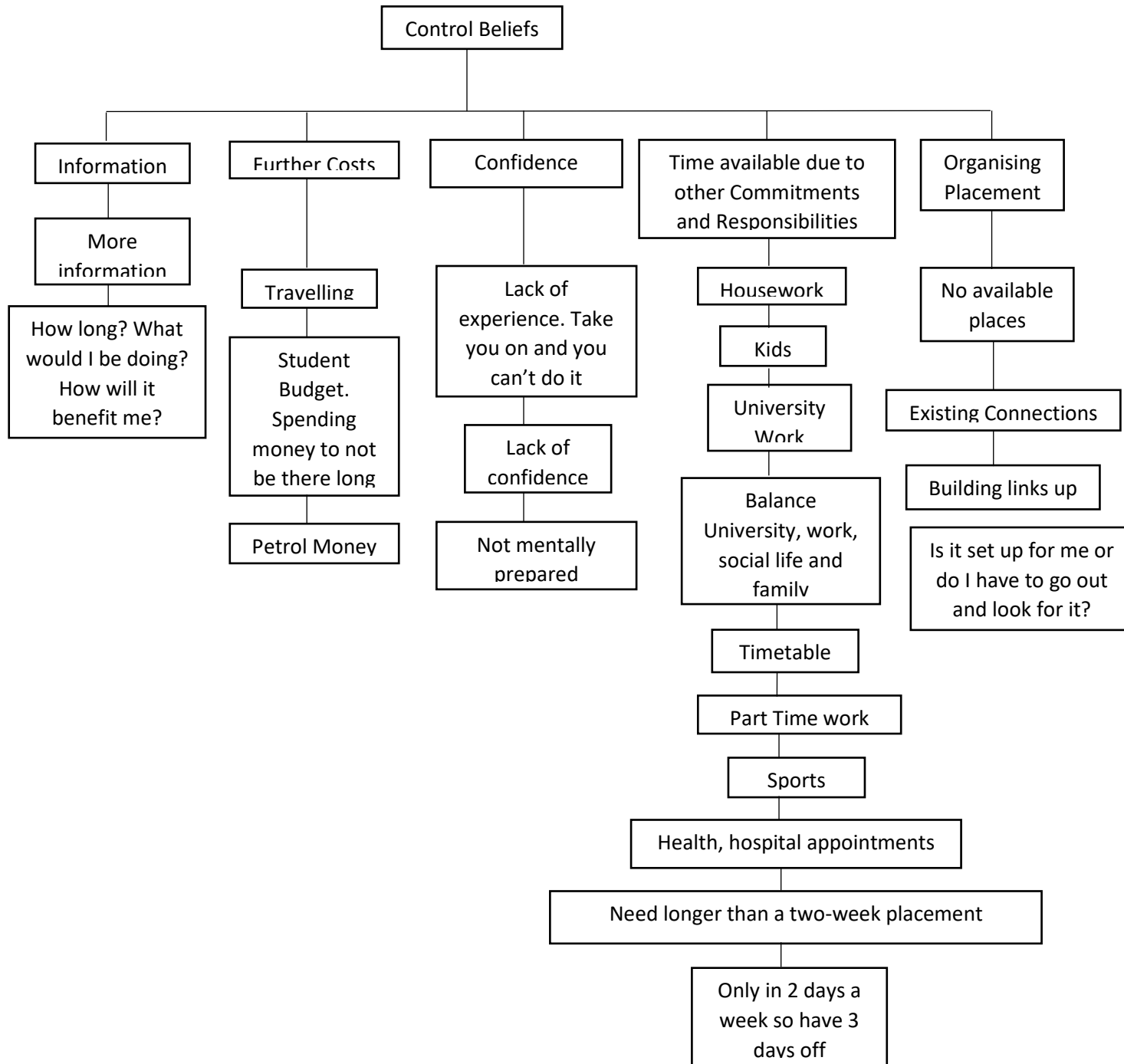
- The Research Ethics Committee must be informed about any changes to the approved study protocol.
- The University of Sunderland 'Research Ethics Completion Statement' proforma must be completed and submitted to the Committee within three months following the project end date.

Outcome Beliefs



Appendix 8 – Outcome, normative and control beliefs





Appendix 9 – Study One code frames

Attitude – Instrumental and Affective Beliefs		
Instrumental (Advantages)		
Category Label	Category Description	Code
No Comment	No answer or don't know e.g. "no" "nothing" "don't know"	0
Broaden my knowledge and skills	Gain further knowledge and understanding e.g. "a more valuable experience in a work setting" "learn new skills"	2
Increase career opportunity	Greater chances employment, improvements to CV e.g. "recommend you for other jobs" "make some contacts"" Networking"" building rappoints"	5
Will impact on studies	Assist with academic studies e.g. "Think it would help with studies"	6
Gain Qualifications	Achieve extra certifications e.g. "get qualifications from"	7
Uncoded	Anything not in above categories	8

Attitude – Instrumental and Affective Beliefs		
Instrumental (Disadvantages)		
Category Label	Category Description	Code
No Comment	No answer or don't know e.g."no" "nothing" "don't know"	9
Time	Not enough time to allocate or lack of, Additional responsibilities and obligations e.g. "balancing time" "general lack of time" "hard to fit it in" "work commitments" "childcare" "kids" "miss some football" "I usually participate in coaching" "Not studying with them hours"	10
Money	Carrying out work without payment e.g. "it's not paid"	12
Uncoded	Anything not in above categories	14

Attitude – Instrumental and Affective Beliefs		
Affective (Like)		
Category Label	Category Description	Code
No Comment	No answer or don't know e.g. "no" "nothing" "don't know"	15
Enjoyable	Positive Feelings and encouraging e.g. "Well its helpful" "it's a positive"	16
Uncoded	Anything not in above categories	23

Attitude – Instrumental and Affective Beliefs		
Affective (Dislikes)		
Category Label	Category Description	Code
No Comment	No answer or don't know e.g. "no" "nothing" "don't know"	24
Not Enjoying	Encountering negatives and lack of enjoyment e.g. "bad reputation" "not get on with that person"	26
Will negatively impact on studies	Distract from academic work e.g. "take away me motivation"	28
Uncoded	Anything not in above categories	32

Normative Beliefs Individual and Groups (Approve)		
Category Label	Category Description	Code
No Comment	No answer or don't know e.g. "no" "nothing" "don't know"	33
Family	Relatives and relations, nearest to family unit e.g. "dad" "mam" "parents" "grandparents" "girlfriend"	34
Friends	Social acquaintances and companions e.g. "friends" "work colleagues" "teams" "class mates"	35
Teacher/Lecturer	Educationalist e.g. "Lecturer" "Teacher"	36
Employer	Work manager or co-workers e.g. "me boss"	38
Coaches	Trainer e.g. "boxing coaches"	39
Uncoded	Anything not in above categories	42

Normative Beliefs Individual and Groups (Disapprove)		
Category Label	Category Description	Code
No Comment	No answer or don't know e.g. "no" "nothing" "don't know"	43
Nobody	Can't identify any individuals or groups "Nobody" "No one"	43a
Employer	Work manager e.g. "manager" "work"	45
Teacher/Lecturer	Educationalist e.g. "Lecturer" "Teacher"	46
Friends	Social acquaintances and companions e.g. "friends" "class mates" "co-workers"	47
Uncoded	Anything not in above categories	49

Control Beliefs		
Personal or Situational (Make it easy)		
Category Label	Category Description	Code
No Comment	No answer or don't know e.g. "no" "nothing" "don't know"	50
Time available	Schedule for class based learning e.g. "timetable" "only in two days a week" "available time" "free time" "more time" "Fitting it around" "work done quicker" "miss out football"	51
Information	Further details e.g. "how long it's for" "Information"	54
Organising placement	Develop Connections e.g. "building up links" "people I know"	55
No Further costs	No additional expenses e.g. "if you need to travel on three buses"	56
Uncoded	Anything not in above categories	57

Control Beliefs		
Personal or Situational (Make it Difficult)		
Category Label	Category Description	Code
No Comment	No answer or don't know e.g. "no" "nothing" "don't know"	58
Further costs	Additional costs and expenditures e.g. "Petrol money" "Spending" "Distance" "Travelling" "just getting to places"	60
Confidence	Doubting own ability e.g. "being nervous" "not being prepared" "Unprepared" "bit rushed"	61
Time available due to other Commitments and responsibilities	Time dependent activities or obligations e.g. "kids" "family problems" "Studies" "Education" "life balance" "hours" "time" "Football" "timetable" "work" "part time job"	62
Organising placement	Suitability and availability of placement e.g. "hard to find" "places" "Do I have to do it or go look for it"	63
Uncoded	Anything not in above categories	64

Appendix 10 – Study Two ethical approval



Downloaded: 16/11/2018
Approved: 14/11/2018

Kelly Perry
School of Nursing and Health Sciences
Programme: PhD Research Sport and Exercise Science PT

Dear Kelly

PROJECT TITLE: Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within sport and exercise.

APPLICATION: Reference Number 002831

On behalf of the University ethics reviewers who reviewed your project, I am pleased to inform you that on 14/11/2018 the above-named project was **approved** on ethics grounds, on the basis that you will adhere to the following documentation that you submitted for ethics review:

- University research ethics application form 002831 (dated 12/11/2018).
- Participant information sheet 1005556 version 2 (12/11/2018).
- Participant information sheet 1005557 version 1 (30/09/2018).
- Participant information sheet 1005559 version 1 (30/09/2018).
- Participant consent form 1005558 version 2 (12/11/2018).
- Participant consent form 1005560 version 1 (30/09/2018).

If during the course of the project you need to deviate significantly from the above-approved documentation please email ethics.review@sunderland.ac.uk

For more information please visit: <https://www.sunderland.ac.uk/research/governance/researchethics/>

Yours sincerely

Callum Williams
Ethics Administrator
University of Sunderland

Appendix 11 – Study Two participant information sheet

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Study Title:

Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within sport and exercise.

What is the purpose of the study?

You are being asked to take part in a voluntary research study to examine students' motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities.

Who can take part in the study?

If you are over the age of 18 and studying a higher education degree programme at level 4, 5 or 6 (1st, 2nd or 3rd year) then you are eligible to take part in the study.

What will happen to me if I take part?

In this study you will be asked to take part in a 10-minute online questionnaire or paper-based questionnaire. Your participation in the study is voluntary. All information provided will be confidential with anonymity maintained throughout the study. The questionnaire will be conducted on campus during your lecture time within a classroom. You may be asked to take part in a follow up questionnaire which will involve completing the same questionnaire on a 2nd and final occasion.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no disadvantages or risks in taking part in this study.

What if something goes wrong?

If you change your mind about participation, please contact me by email to cancel your participation. You can withdraw from the study without giving reason for up to two weeks after you have initially taken part. However, once your questionnaire responses have been inputted for data analysis the researcher will be unable to identify your individual questionnaire due to confidentiality and therefore unable to withdraw your responses beyond this time frame. If you feel unhappy about the conduct of the study, please contact me immediately or the Chairperson of the University of Sunderland Research Ethics Group, whose contact details are given below.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

The data collected does not contain any personal information about you except the demographic data you provided such as your age, gender, year, and programme of study. For those willing you may be contacted two weeks after you have completed the survey for a follow up survey to be conducted again at your campus during classroom timetabled hours. If you agree to being contacted again for a follow up

survey, you will be asked to leave a 4-digit code (the final 4 digits of your mobile number). No one will link the data you provided to the identifying information you supplied for contact details.

On completion of the study your data may be used for publications, presentations, and conferences however anonymity will be upheld, and individual participants will not be identifiable from the research presented or published.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

If suitable, the results may also be presented at academic conferences and/or written up for publication in peer reviewed academic journals.

Who is organising and funding the research?

The primary researcher is responsible for organising and funding the research.

Who has reviewed the study?

The University of Sunderland Research Ethics Group has reviewed and approved the study.

Contact for further information

Doctor John Fulton (Chair of the University of Sunderland Research Ethics Group, University of Sunderland)

Email: john.fulton@sunderland.ac.uk

Phone: 0191 515 2529

PhD Researcher, Kelly Perry

Email: bd61ak@student.sunderland.ac.uk

Appendix 12 – Study Two consent form

Consent Form

Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within sport and exercise.

Participant Code (last 4 digits of your mobile number)

I am over the age of 18	
I have read and understood the attached study information and, by signing below, I consent to voluntarily participate in this study	
I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study without giving a reason for up to two weeks after I have initially taken part.	
I consent to being contacted again to repeat participation for the same questionnaire	

Signed: _____

Print name: _____

(Your name, along with your participant code is important to help match your data from two questionnaires. It will not be used for any purpose other than this.)

Date: _____

*Participants wishing to preserve some degree of anonymity may use their initials (from the British Psychological Society Guidelines for Minimal Standards of Ethical Approval in Psychological Research)

Please provide contact details below of how you wish to be contacted to arrange participation to complete this questionnaire for a 2nd and final time.

Contact Telephone Number _____

Email _____

Appendix 13 – Study Two questionnaire

Section 1 (Demographic Information)

A What is your programme of study?

B What institute do you currently study at?

C What year of your degree are you currently studying? (1st year, 2nd or 3rd year)

D What is your age?

E Are You Male or Female

Section 2

1. I expect to take part in industry related volunteering hours outside of my scheduled time table

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

2. I want to take part in industry related volunteering hours outside of my scheduled time table.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

3. I intend to take part in industry related volunteering hours outside of my scheduled time table.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

4. Taking part in industry related volunteering hours is

Harmful	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Beneficial
Bad	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Good
Unenjoyable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Enjoyable
Negative	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Positive

5. Taking part in volunteering will broaden my skills and knowledge Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely

6. Taking part in volunteering will increase my career opportunities. Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely

7. Taking part in volunteering will impact on my studies. Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely
8. Volunteering will allow me to gain qualifications. Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely
9. Volunteering will be enjoyable Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely

10. Broadening my skills and knowledge is Extremely undesirable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely desirable
11. Increasing my career opportunities is Extremely undesirable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely desirable
12. The impact volunteering has on my studies is Extremely undesirable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely desirable
13. Gaining qualifications is Extremely undesirable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely desirable
14. Enjoying taking part in volunteering is Extremely undesirable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely desirable

15. Most people who are important to me think that
I should 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 I should not
Take part in industry related volunteering hours

16. It is expected of me to take part in industry related volunteering hours
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

17. I feel under social pressure to take part in industry related volunteering hours
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

18. People who are important to me want me to take part in industry related
volunteering hours.
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

19. Family think I
Should not 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 should
take part in industry related volunteering hours.

20. Lecturers would

disapprove 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 approve
of taking part in industry related volunteer hours.

21. Friends and peers

Do not 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 do
Want me to take part in industry related volunteer hours

22. My Employer/Coach thinks I

Should not 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 should
take part in industry related volunteering hours.

23. My family's approval of taking part in industry related volunteering is important to me

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

24. What lecturers think I should do matters to me

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

25. Doing what other friends and peers do is important to me

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

26. What my employer/coach thinks I should do matters to me

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

27. I am confident to take part in industry related volunteering

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

28. It is easy for me to take part in industry related volunteering

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

29. The decision to take part in industry related volunteering is beyond my control

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

30. Whether I take part in industry related volunteering is beyond my control

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

31. Other commitments and responsibilities will impact my time available to take part in industry related volunteering

Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely

32. The amount of information provided will impact my ability to take part in industry related volunteering
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely
33. Further costs such as travel expenses impacts my ability to take part in industry related volunteering.
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely
34. My confidence affects taking part in industry related volunteering.
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely
35. If the volunteering is organised for me this will influence taking part in industry related volunteering.
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Likely
36. My other commitments and responsibilities make me
Less likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 more likely
To take part in industry related volunteering
37. Being fully informed makes volunteering
Much more difficult 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 much easier
To take part in industry related volunteering
38. When travel incurs further costs, I am
Less likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 more likely
To take part in industry related volunteering
39. Feeling confident makes me
Less likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 more likely
To take part in industry related volunteering
40. If the volunteering is organised for me I am
Less likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 more likely
To take part in industry related volunteering
41. I will feel a sense of self approval if I take part in industry related volunteering
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree
42. I believe I should take part in industry related volunteering
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

43. I perceive value in taking part in industry related volunteering
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

44. I feel an obligation to myself to take part in industry related volunteering
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

Appendix 14 – Study Two Scoring key

Question Numbers	Response Format	Items requiring reverse scoring	Items requiring internal consistency analysis	Items requiring multiplication	Construct measured
123	1 to 7				Behavioural Intention
4	1 to 7		4		Attitude, Direct Measure
5 Skills and Knowledge 6 Career Opportunity 7 Impact Studies 8 Gain Qualifications 9 Enjoyable	1 to 7			5 x 10 6 x 11 7 x 12 8 x 13 9 x 14	Behavioural Beliefs (Indirect measure of attitude)
10 Skills and Knowledge 11 Career Opportunity 12 Impact Studies 13 Gain Qualifications 14 Enjoyable	1 to 7				Outcome evaluations
15 16 17 18	1 to 7	15	15 16 17 18		Direct measure of subjective norm
19 20 21 22	1 to 7			19 x 23 20 x 24	Indirect measure of subjective norm
23 24 25 26	1 to 7			21 x 25 22 x 26	Motivation to comply
27 28 29 30	1 to 7		27 28 29 30		Perceived Behavioural control, direct measure
31 32 33 34 35	1 to 7			31 x 36 32 x 37 33 x 38	Strength of control beliefs, indirect measure of PBC
36 37 38 39 40	1 to 7			34 x 39 35 x 40	Power of control factors
41 42 43 44	1 to 7		41 42 43 44		Personal Norm, Direct Measure

Appendix 15 – Study Three ethical approval



Downloaded: 17/11/2021
Approved: 17/11/2021

Kelly Perry
School of Nursing and Health Sciences
Programme: PHD Research Sport and Exercise Science PT

Dear Kelly

PROJECT TITLE: Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within Higher Education.

APPLICATION: Reference Number 009897

On behalf of the University ethics reviewers who reviewed your project, I am pleased to inform you that on 17/11/2021 the above-named project was **approved** on ethics grounds, on the basis that you will adhere to the following documentation that you submitted for ethics review:

- University research ethics application form 009897 (form submission date: 28/10/2021); (expected project end date: 01/06/2022).
- Participant information sheet 1016771 version 2 (28/10/2021).
- Participant information sheet 1016770 version 2 (28/10/2021).
- Participant information sheet 1016769 version 2 (28/10/2021).
- Participant consent form 1016772 version 1 (19/08/2021).

If during the course of the project you need to deviate significantly from the above-approved documentation please email ethics.review@sunderland.ac.uk

For more information please visit: <https://www.sunderland.ac.uk/research/governance/researchethics/>

Yours sincerely

Veronique Laniel
Ethics Administrator
University of Sunderland

Appendix 16 – Study Three, approval of data collection

23rd March 2022



**University of
Sunderland**

FACULTY OF EDUCATION & SOCIETY

Wearside View Building
SIR TOM COWIE CAMPUS AT ST PETER'S
SUNDERLAND SR6 0DD
UNITED KINGDOM

www.sunderland.ac.uk

Kelly Perry – PhD Research

Thanks for your recent correspondence regarding your PhD studies.

I hereby authorise Kelly Perry to collect relevant research data in order for her to complete her PhD qualification.

The key provisos are that the studies receive University of Sunderland ethical approval, and that students are given full information about the study, and you receive informed consent from them.

Your sincerely

Vicki Stokes
Team Leader
Faculty of Education and Society

Name

VICE-CHANCELLOR
& CHIEF EXECUTIVE
SHIRLEY ATKINSON



Appendix 17 – Study Three questionnaire

Section 1 (Demographic Information)

A What is your programme of study?

B What institute do you currently study at?

C What year of your degree are you currently studying? (1st year, 2nd or 3rd year)

D What is your age?

E Are You Male or Female

Section 2

Measuring Behavioural intentions

Method 1: Intention performance

1. I intend to take part in industry related volunteering hours outside of my scheduled timetable.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

Measuring Attitude

Direct measure of attitude

2. It is beneficial to take part in industry related volunteering hours outside of my scheduled timetable.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

Measuring Subjective Norms

Direct measurement of subjective norm

3. People who are important to me want me to take part in industry related volunteering hours.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

Measuring perceived behavioural control

Direct measurement of Perceived behavioural control

- 4. I am confident to take part in industry related volunteering
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

- 5. The decision to take part in industry related volunteering is beyond my control
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

Direct measure of Personal Norm

- 6. I will feel a sense of self approval if I take part in industry related volunteering
Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

Appendix 18 – Study Three consent form.

Consent Form

Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within higher education.

Participant Code (last 4 digits of your mobile number)

I am over the age of 18	
I have read and understood the attached study information and, by signing below, I consent to voluntarily participate in this study	
I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study without giving a reason for up to two weeks after I have initially taken part.	
I consent to being contacted again to repeat participation for the same questionnaire	

Signed: _____

Print name: _____

(Your name, along with your participant code is important to help match your data from two questionnaires. It will not be used for any purpose other than this.)

Date: _____

*Participants wishing to preserve some degree of anonymity may use their initials (from the British Psychological Society Guidelines for Minimal Standards of Ethical Approval in Psychological Research)

Please provide contact details below of how you wish to be contacted to arrange participation to complete this questionnaire for a 2nd and final time.

Contact Telephone Number _____

Email _____

Appendix 19 – Study Three invitation to participate.

INVITATION TO PARTICPATE IN RESEARCH

Dear Educator

You are invited to participate in a study that examines students' motivation to take part in volunteering opportunities. The title of the research is ***'Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within higher education.'*** As a provider of higher education your students will be in an ideal position to provide first-hand information from their own perspective.

The study involves an online questionnaire that takes around 3 minutes and is very informal. If students consent to take part, then a follow up questionnaire will be arranged in two weeks following initial completion of the questionnaire. Prior to completion of the follow up questionnaire, participants will be required to view a short online video lasting no longer than 6 minutes. Responses to questions will be kept confidential. Each participant will be asked to provide a number code (last four digits of their mobile number) to help ensure that personal identifiers are not revealed during analysis and write up of findings.

The study will require yourself as Programme/Deputy Programme leader to ensure the link to the questionnaire or hard copy is made available to all students to access during class time.

If you are willing to participate, please suggest an academic week that suits you for the questionnaire to be available to your students. I will contact yourself shortly to discuss any questions you may have.

Kind Regards

Kelly Perry

Appendix 20 – Study Three participant information sheet

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Study Title:

Theory of Planned Behaviour and student motivation to take part in employability enhancing volunteering opportunities within higher education.

What is the purpose of the study?

You are being asked to take part in a voluntary research study to examine students' motivation to take part in volunteering opportunities.

Who can take part in the study?

If you are over the age of 18 and studying a higher education degree programme at level 4, 5 or 6 (1st, 2nd or 3rd year) then you are eligible to take part in the study.

What will happen to me if I take part?

In this study you will be asked to take part on two separate occasions to complete an anonymous online survey available through the University VLE. Your participation in the study is voluntary. All information provided will be confidential with anonymity maintained throughout the study. Completion of the first online questionnaire will take 3 minutes and you may complete the questionnaire within your own time. You will have 2 days to access and complete the initial questionnaire. Two weeks following the launch of the initial questionnaire you will be invited again via the same processes to view a six-minute video about volunteering before completing the same questionnaire for a second occasion, the link will be available to complete the second questionnaire for 2 days.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no disadvantages or risks in taking part in this study.

What if something goes wrong?

If you change your mind about participation, please contact me by email to cancel your participation. You can withdraw from the study without giving reason for up to two weeks after you have initially taken part. However, once your questionnaire responses have been inputted for data analysis the researcher will be unable to identify your individual questionnaire due to confidentiality and therefore unable to withdraw your responses beyond this time frame. If you feel unhappy about the conduct of the study, please contact me immediately or the Chairperson of the University of Sunderland Research Ethics Group, whose contact details are given below.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

The data collected does not contain any personal information about you except the demographic data you provided such as your age, gender, year and programme of study. If you choose to take part, you will be contacted up to two weeks after you have completed the survey for a follow up survey to be conducted again via an online link accessed through your programme canvas page. Follow up contact will be made through the programme study page VLE or student email if you consent to leaving a student email. If you agree to being contacted again for a follow up survey you will be asked to leave a 4-digit code (the final 4 digits of your mobile number). No one will link the data you provided to the identifying information you supplied for contact details.

On completion of the study your data may be used for publications, presentations and conferences however anonymity will be upheld, and individual participants will not be identifiable from the research presented or published.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

If suitable, the results may also be presented at academic conferences and/or written up for publication in peer reviewed academic journals.

Who is organising and funding the research?

The primary researcher is responsible for organising and funding the research.

Who has reviewed the study?

The University of Sunderland Research Ethics Group has reviewed and approved the study.

Contact for further information

Doctor John Fulton (Chair of the University of Sunderland Research Ethics Group, University of Sunderland)

Email: john.fulton@sunderland.ac.uk

Phone: 0191 515 2529

PhD Researcher, Kelly Perry

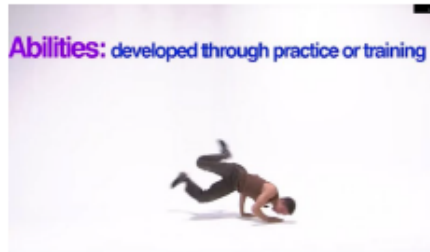
Email: bd61ak@student.sunderland.ac.uk

Appendix 21 – Positive beliefs video storyboard.

Study 3 Storyboards

Positive beliefs video

Total time 6:16



Introduction to volunteering and development of transferrable skills.



Importance of transferrable skills, organization, time management, problem-solving, leadership, presentations, teamwork, ICT, interpersonal communications, creative thinking. Gain new skills through volunteering.



Students and former students across a range of courses discuss experiences. Teamwork skills, presentation skills opportunity to meet people outside of the course. Fun and enjoyable and experiences that can be taken forward into business life. (Affective beliefs)



The power of volunteering, inspiring, strong community, feelings of pride. (Empowering messages)



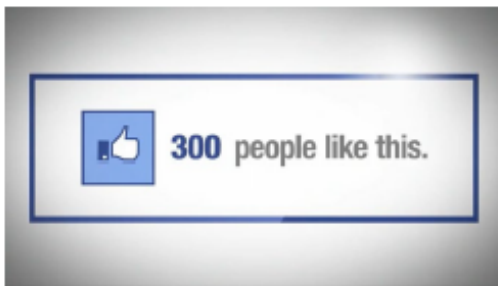
Venture out into the world of work. Enhance employability with hands on work experience. Work with the community, individuals with different beliefs, values, and cultures to your own. Learn skills beyond the classroom environment whilst applying learning gained from your program in a real work-based setting.



Improve CV with volunteering. Benefits of volunteering for employability prospects. Higher salary, promotion, employers value of volunteering, explore career options.



Gain additional qualifications through volunteering. Make the connection between your course of study and your career path.



Build confidence, feel accepted, overcome any uncertainty and fears, prepare for dealing with future working relationships.



Feelings of pride and reward, feelings of importance, self-approval.



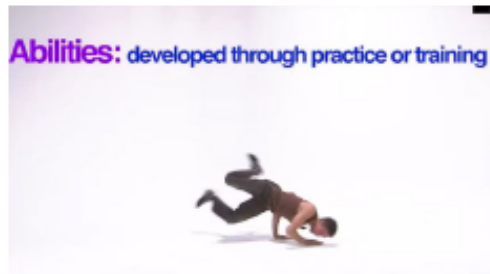
Create professional contacts and network.
Meet groups of people with a wealth of expertise to aid achievement of your goals.

Appendix 22 – Positive and negative beliefs video storyboard.

Study 3 Storyboards

Positive and Negative beliefs video

Total time 5:59



Introduction to volunteering and development of transferrable skills.



Importance of transferrable skills, organization, time management, problem-solving, leadership, presentations, teamwork, ICT, interpersonal communications, creative thinking. Gain new skills through volunteering.



Barrier of available time.

Scenes of individuals discussing how they perceive this barrier and overcome it.



Fear of not enough time, 'if you look at the rest of your life and how busy you are, you could say that about lots of things you'.

'If you make this a priority in your life, you will find time for it and the other things in your life will become much better too'.

BE FLEXIBLE



Be flexible and honest with your schedule.

Series of various individuals discussing how they overcome the barrier of time.

FOLLOW YOUR PASSION

Follow your passion, barrier of finding the right experience and the 'right fit'.

'What do you like to do?'

'Take something you are interested in or think you are interested in and try it, not just once but a couple of times.'



Students and former students across a range of courses discuss experiences. Teamwork skills, presentation skills opportunity to meet people outside of the course. Fun and enjoyable and experiences that can be taken forward into business life.

BUILDING CONNECTIONS



Venture out into the world of work. Enhance employability with hands on work experience. Work with the community, individuals with different beliefs, values, and cultures to your own. Learn skills beyond the classroom environment whilst applying learning gained from your program in a real work-based setting.



Improve CV with volunteering.

Benefits of volunteering for employability prospects. Higher salary, promotion, employers value of volunteering, explore career options.



Gain additional qualifications through volunteering.

Make the connection between your course of study and your career path.



Build confidence, feel accepted, overcome any uncertainty and fears, prepare for dealing with future working relationships.

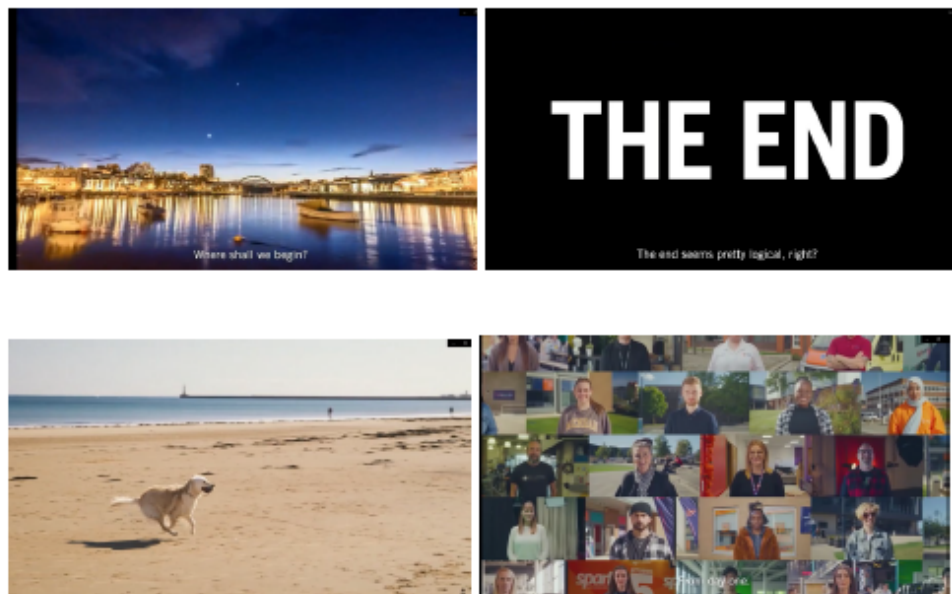
Appendix 23 – Control beliefs video storyboard.

Study 3 Storyboards

Control group – No beliefs targeted.

Total time 4.43 minutes

1:18s of existing video footage from YouTube, contents show generic programs and student life across the city and campus with messages stating where University life begins and where it ends and reference to being proud of students and future pathways. No reference to course specific routes or volunteering or skill development.



1 minute of an existing YouTube video displaying student experiences and University life to background music. No voice over or messages are shown within this section of the video.



Remaining video footage of 2:25 minutes shows further student experiences across campus and programs to background music, no messages specific to employability, volunteering or targeted beliefs are displayed.



